



HAL
open science

What have birth cohort studies asked about genetic, pre- and perinatal exposures and child and adolescent onset mental health outcomes? A systematic review

Lucy Thompson, Jeremy Kemp, Philip Wilson, Rachel Pritchett, Helen Minnis, Louise Toms-Whittle, Christine Puckering, James Law, Christopher Gillberg

► To cite this version:

Lucy Thompson, Jeremy Kemp, Philip Wilson, Rachel Pritchett, Helen Minnis, et al.. What have birth cohort studies asked about genetic, pre- and perinatal exposures and child and adolescent onset mental health outcomes? A systematic review. *European Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 2009, 19 (1), pp.1-15. 10.1007/s00787-009-0045-4. hal-00535166

HAL Id: hal-00535166

<https://hal.science/hal-00535166v1>

Submitted on 11 Nov 2010

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

What have birth cohort studies asked about genetic, pre- and perinatal exposures and child and adolescent onset mental health outcomes? A systematic review

Lucy Thompson · Jeremy Kemp · Philip Wilson · Rachel Pritchett · Helen Minnis · Louise Toms-Whittle · Christine Puckering · James Law · Christopher Gillberg

Received: 24 November 2008 / Accepted: 25 June 2009 / Published online: 28 July 2009
© Springer-Verlag 2009

Abstract Increased understanding of early neurobehavioural development is needed to prevent, identify, and treat childhood psychopathology most effectively at the earliest possible stage. Prospective birth cohorts can elucidate the association of genes, environment, and their interactions with neurobehavioural development. We conducted a systematic review of the birth cohort literature. On the basis of internet searches and 6,248 peer-reviewed references, 105 longitudinal epidemiological studies were identified. Twenty studies met inclusion criteria (prospectively recruited, population-based cohort studies, including at least one assessment before the end of the perinatal period and at least one assessment of behaviour, temperament/personality, neuropsychiatric or psychiatric status before

19 years of age), and their methodologies were reviewed in full. Whilst the birth cohort studies did examine some aspects of behaviour and neurodevelopment, observations in the early months and years were rare. Furthermore, aspects of sampling method, sample size, data collection, design, and breadth and depth of measurement in some studies made research questions about neurodevelopment difficult to answer. Existing birth cohort studies have yielded limited information on how pre- and perinatal factors and early neurodevelopment relate to child psychopathology. Further epidemiological research is required with a specific focus on early neurodevelopment. Studies are needed which include the measures of early childhood psychopathology and involve long-term follow-up.

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (doi:10.1007/s00787-009-0045-4) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

Keywords Epidemiology · Child development · Longitudinal studies · Mental health · Perinatal

L. Thompson · J. Kemp · P. Wilson (✉) · R. Pritchett · H. Minnis · C. Puckering · C. Gillberg
Division of Community Based Sciences, Faculty of Medicine, University of Glasgow, Caledonia House, RHSC Yorkhill, Glasgow G3 8SJ, UK
e-mail: p.wilson@clinmed.gla.ac.uk

Abbreviations

ADHD Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder
ASC Autism spectrum conditions
CD Conduct disorder
ODD Oppositional defiant disorder

L. Thompson
e-mail: lucy.thompson@ggc.scot.nhs.uk

L. Thompson · H. Minnis · C. Puckering · C. Gillberg
Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, NHS Greater Glasgow and Clyde, Glasgow, UK

Introduction

A sound understanding of normal and abnormal behavioural and neurological development in the early years of life is necessary before we can prevent, identify, and treat early onset neurodevelopmental and mental health problems. We lack a detailed knowledge of the aetiology, risk factors, correlates, onset, early symptoms, course, and

L. Toms-Whittle
Faculty of Dentistry and Medicine, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK

J. Law
Centre for Integrated Healthcare Research, Queen Margaret University Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK

prevalence of child psychiatric conditions, including conduct disorder (CD) [48], oppositional defiant disorder (ODD) [40], tic disorders, bipolar disorder, attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) [74], schizophrenia [65], and autism spectrum conditions (ASC) [63]. Two of these conditions (CD and autism) will be discussed in more detail to provide specific examples of the issues that need to be addressed, but the gaps are at least as large for the other childhood neurodevelopmental and psychiatric disorders.

Risk factors and correlates

The literature on CD provides a useful example of the gaps in our knowledge of risk factors of neurodevelopmental disorders and mental health problems. Many risk factors and correlates have been proposed, but few have been established as causative [15, 48]. For example, harsh and inconsistent parenting has been repeatedly shown to be associated with CD/ODD, but we do not know to what extent it is a cause or a consequence [19]. Perinatal complications, genetic predisposition, neurocognitive deficits, low IQ and parental antisocial behaviour are also implicated, but many outstanding questions remain about the exact nature of these risk factors and the way in which they may interact [48]. Epidemiological studies of CD/ODD in preschool children in the general population are rare [16, 39, 41]. Furthermore, important nosological questions remain, for example the contribution of callous-unemotional symptoms, the importance of gender differences and the relationship between ODD, CD and anti-social personality disorder [48]. We also need to know more about the key genetic determinants and the utility of physiological biomarkers.

Autism research provides another useful illustration; we know that genetic factors are very important in autism [82] and siblings are at much increased risk of being diagnosed with ASC after infancy [94], but again methodological issues preclude generalisable conclusions as to the magnitude of the risk involved. Longitudinal population-based studies are required to establish the utility of these markers and consequently to develop robust early screening and diagnostic tools.

Course and stability of disorders

Continuing with the example of autism, whilst several studies have assessed prevalence [3, 18, 23, 58, 88, 90] there is less conclusive evidence about the course and stability of the disorder, especially throughout the first 5 years of life. There is a significant body of evidence that predictors of autism exist in early childhood [12, 24, 91, 94]. These include failure to react to own name, decreased

initiation of joint attention, odd reactions to sensory stimuli, and pathological or unusual motor/movement patterns. However, referral and recall bias, small sample size and other methodological considerations still limit the general predictive and clinical value of such parameters.

Problems with existing studies of early neurodevelopment and child psychopathology

Many studies that focus on the early determinants of child psychopathology are weakened by their methodology. Clinical samples cannot give a comprehensive understanding of overlap with normality and issues of co-morbidity as the thresholds of discrete conditions are already defined, whilst cross-sectional studies cannot enhance our understanding of developmental processes. As Pickles and Angold [57] state, in order to understand the relationships between psychopathology, its aetiology, outcome, and other factors, “we need to adopt a truly empirical approach that is unblinkered by either categorical or dimensional prejudices”. Retrospective studies of early predictors of psychopathology are limited by issues of recall bias whilst prospective cohorts of subjects at ‘high risk’ [6, 10, 20, 37, 44, 45, 47, 79, 91, 92, 94] may reveal early indicators of neurodevelopmental disorders, such as autism, but are subject to a variety of forms of selection and ascertainment bias. For example, prospective studies of children exposed to smoking in pregnancy and of children with very low birth weights have shown increased rates of ADHD and of ADHD/autism symptoms [34, 35], but to what extent such factors alone can contribute to these difficulties can best be determined in the context of general population birth cohort studies. Furthermore, approaches limited to ‘high risk’ families will inevitably fail to help us understand the common sporadic cases.

Early intervention in disorders of social development is, a priori, more likely to be effective than late intervention, but data confirming this assertion are lacking largely because of the lack of sensitive and specific techniques to identify at-risk children. In order to develop complex interventions to improve health [7], there is a need to define the causal models for these disorders better, which in turn require epidemiological investigations [11, 32]. Large population studies have been extremely rare in this field.

Advantages of the birth cohort methodology

Prospective, unselected birth cohorts, followed from pregnancy or birth, allow us to study early neurodevelopment and behaviour without the methodological weaknesses outlined above. If a representative sample of the general population can be recruited in the pre- or perinatal period and retained throughout childhood, difficulties with

selection bias can be overcome. Early exposures, which can be considered in understanding the development of childhood psychopathology, include those present at the time of conception (genetics), during pregnancy (the intrauterine environment: toxins, placental function, maternal cortisol, etc.), at birth (asphyxia, trauma, etc.) and during the postnatal period (infection, feeding modality, parent–infant interaction etc.). Relationships between exposures, outcomes, and other influential factors can be considered in a temporal context to allow mapping of developmental trajectories, and overlap between disorders and between psychopathology and normality can be elucidated [70]. Although selection bias is less of an issue for birth cohorts, this design always carries the risk of differential attrition over time, giving a less stable basis to the generalisability of findings.

Advantages of the antenatal birth cohort methodology

The advantages of a birth cohort methodology are capitalised upon if recruitment takes place antenatally. In a recent review paper, Shulruf et al. [70] highlight the importance of taking an holistic view of child development in order truly to understand “the complex way in which developmental trajectories across different domains are determined and interrelated”. Shaw et al. [69] demonstrated this by finding that the *trajectory of change* in the thickness of the cerebral cortex is most closely related to level of intelligence rather than cortical thickness itself, measured at any one point in time. Any developmental outcome can only be considered as a snapshot of any one trajectory, and as such it is essential to ensure that we measure a range of relevant factors longitudinally from as early as possible. There are clear advantages in measuring such factors as parental personality/mental health and family functioning before the arrival of a baby, as the baby may influence these, and Shulruf et al. [70] conclude that any new longitudinal study of child development should gather data in the antenatal period.

We conducted this review with a view to identifying systematically which birth cohort studies measured important exposures in the pre- and/or perinatal period and also measured behaviour, temperament/personality, parent–child relationships, language and social functioning, neurodevelopment, intellectual functioning and psychopathology, including autism, in childhood.

Methods

Birth cohort studies (published and in progress) were identified from 6,248 references retrieved from the following internet-based bibliographic databases to May 2006: (1) EBM Reviews, (2) British Nursing Index, (3)

CINAHL, (4) EMBASE, (5) ERIC, (6) OVID Medline and (7) PsychINFO. The search term ‘birth cohort’ was used. Secondary referencing, birth cohort study websites, internet search engines and consultation with workers in the field identified further studies. Further searches using these methods were employed to gather as comprehensive information as possible on identified studies to the end of 2007, and information was also requested directly from 21 birth cohort study research teams (see Table 14—online).

Inclusion criteria

The following inclusion criteria were used:

1. Human study population;
2. Birth cohort study defined by:
 - (a) identification antenatally or at birth;
 - (b) cohort recruited from an unselected population (rather than clinical) base;
 - (c) some prospective data collection from antenatal/perinatal period;
 - (d) measures to include at least one assessment of behaviour, temperament/personality, neurodevelopmental or psychiatric status (questionnaire or direct observation) before 19 years of age.

In total, 105 birth cohort, epidemiological or longitudinal studies were identified of which 20 studies met the inclusion/exclusion criteria and were reviewed in full (Table 1). Details of studies that did not meet the criteria are presented in Table 13 (online). A fuller account of the measures of the included studies can be found in Tables 5–12 (online). We discuss issues of study design and measurement for the 20 included studies, and give a brief outline of certain seminal studies that did not fully meet the criteria.

Results

Basic details of each of the 20 included studies are outlined in Table 1, with further summarised information given in Tables 2–4 (online). Twelve studies referred to cohorts recruited antenatally and the remaining eight cohorts enrolled around the time of birth. The sample sizes of the studies ranged from 831 to 100,000 and recruitment rates from approximately 30 to 99% of those targeted. Only three studies (Christchurch, Copenhagen County, and the Norwegian mother and child cohort) focussed specifically on autism/child mental health/neurodevelopment and the sample sizes of these studies ranged from 1,265 to 88,027. Only two of these studies (Christchurch and Copenhagen County) had measures of neurodevelopment in the first

Table 1 Basic details of birth cohort studies

Study name	Population location	Year of cohort	Sample size	Point of enrolment	Focus of study	Key reference
Amsterdam born children and their development (ABCD)	Amsterdam, Netherlands	2003–2005	7,051	Antenatal	Ethnic differences in pregnancy outcome Nutrition and immunological status, psychosocial health and substance use Physical activity, work and workload	[5, 80, 81]
Avon longitudinal study of pregnancy and childhood	Bristol and Avon, UK	1990–1992	14,062	Antenatal	Biological, environmental, social, psychological and psychosocial factors Various health and development outcomes	[26]
Birth to twenty	Soweto and Johannesburg, South Africa	1990	3,275	Antenatal	Child and adolescent health and development Socio-economic, political, demographic and nutritional transition underway in South Africa	[66]
British cohort study (1970)	UK	1970	17,198	Birth	Social and biological characteristics of the mother in relation to neonatal morbidity To compare the results with those of the 1958 national child development study	[46]
Children's health and environment in the Faroes (CHEF)—cohort 1	Faroe Islands	1986–1987	1,023	Birth	Physical and educational development at age 5, physical, educational and social development at ages 10 and 16 Hazardous exposures to marine toxicants in the pre- and perinatal period & possible early adverse effects on growth and development	[30]
Christchurch health and development study (CHDS)	Christchurch, New Zealand	1977	1,265	Birth	Child and adolescent mental health Emotional and behavioural difficulties in middle childhood	[17]
Copenhagen perinatal birth cohort	Copenhagen, Denmark	1959–1961	8,820	Antenatal	Pre- and perinatal conditions and their influence on children's development Various demographic, social and medical factors, including neurological and psychological development	[61]
Copenhagen County child cohort	Copenhagen, Denmark	2000 onwards	6,090	Birth	Mental health problems in infants and children	[72]
Danish national birth cohort (DNBC)	Denmark	1996–2003	100,000	Antenatal	Exposures include: social environment, genes, diet and infection Outcomes include: behavioural disorders, congenital malformations, cancer, asthma	[54]
Generation R	Netherlands	2002–2006	9,778	Antenatal	Physical, behavioural and cognitive development and their determinants Diseases in childhood	[38]

Table 1 continued

Study name	Population location	Year of cohort	Sample size	Point of enrolment	Focus of study	Key reference
INMA (Infancia y Medio Ambiente)	Spain	2004–2005	2,600–3,500	Antenatal	Prenatal environmental pollutants Neurodevelopment, milestones, asthma/allergies	URL: http://inma.imim.es
Mater-University of Queensland study of pregnancy (MUSP)	Brisbane, Australia	1981	7,223	Antenatal	Medical and social factors associated with adverse pregnancy outcomes	[50]
National child development study (1958)	UK	1958	17,414	Birth	Health, development, learning and behaviour To examine the social and obstetric factors associated with stillbirth and death in early infancy	[60]
The NICHD study of early child care and youth development (NICHD SECC)	USA	1991	1,364	Birth	The relationship between child care experiences and characteristics and children's developmental outcomes	[75]
Northern Finland birth cohort 1	Northern Finland	1966	12,068	Antenatal	Various demographic, social and medical factors	[62]
Northern Finland birth cohort 2	Northern Finland	1985–1986	9,432	Antenatal	Mental health in adulthood Various demographic, social and medical factors	[42]
Norwegian mother and child cohort study (MoBa)/ABC Columbia	Norway	1999–2007	88,027	Antenatal	Mental health in adulthood Demographic, social, environmental, nutritional factors	[52]
Pacific Islands families study	Auckland, New Zealand	2000	1,398	Birth	Physical, neurological and behavioural development Development, birth defects, infections, growth/obesity, neurodevelopment, asthma allergies, autism	[55]
Pelotas birth cohort study 2	Pelotas, Brazil	1993	5,249	Birth	Cultural, economic, environmental and psychosocial factors Various demographic, social and medical factors in a developing country, including psychological development	[84, 85]
Port Pirie cohort study	Port Pirie, Australia	1979	831	Antenatal	Impact of lead exposure on childhood physical and neurobehavioural development	[78, 87]

2 years in the *whole cohort*, but the relatively small sample size in one of these (Christchurch) precluded study of rarer disorders, and Copenhagen County did not recruit antenatally, precluding a full understanding of the prenatal environment.

We now present information on sampling and methodology for each of the 20 studies meeting inclusion criteria, starting with the 12 antenatally derived cohorts, followed by the eight cohorts recruited at birth. We then describe five key excluded studies. Within these subsections the studies have been ordered alphabetically.

Cohorts recruited antenatally

Amsterdam born children and their development (2003–2005) Focusing, in part, on psychosocial health, this current study from the Netherlands follows 7,051 infants from pregnancy through to 5 years of age [80] (<http://www.abcd-study.nl/>). A range of demographic, biological, psychosocial and behavioural information on the parents was collected antenatally, with routine birth data recorded at 4–7 days. Information on the postnatal environment, including mother's behaviour and psycho-social status, was collected at 3 months. No data collection occurred between 3 months and 5 years. Whilst infant crying and maternal soothing and mother–child relationship was assessed, there was no assessment of infant language or psychopathology. Measures of child cognitive development and psychological wellbeing are planned for the next data collection phase at age 5 years.

Avon longitudinal study of parents and children: (1990–1992) This study from the Bristol area in the UK included broad examination of biological, environmental, social, psychological, and psychosocial exposures and their various health and developmental outcomes in around 14,000 mother–child dyads [26] (<http://www.bristol.ac.uk/alspac/protocol>). Enrolment is estimated at between 80 and 90% of all pregnancies in the defined target area, and overall retention is reasonable. Data collection starts from pregnancy and is frequent until 5 years of age, with ongoing regular data collection involving children and parents. The children are now 17–18 years old. A range of demographic, biological, psychosocial and behavioural information on both the mother and her partner was collected antenatally. DNA samples have been obtained for approximately 10,000 mothers, 10,000 children and 800 fathers (P³G Observatory [53]). Routine birth data are recorded, and postnatal environment assessed at 4 weeks. Behaviour, language, communication and neurodevelopment are assessed at a range of points throughout childhood. Mother–child interaction was, however, only assessed in the 'children in focus' sub-sample of 1,000 randomly

selected children, although questions on parent–child conflict and relationship were included in the 78-month questionnaire to parents. Child psychopathology was measured in the whole cohort using the development and well-being assessment (DAWBA) [28] at 91 months; at 11 years children were assessed for borderline personality disorder; and at 13 years questionnaires to children included items on eating disorders. Depression (13 and 14 years), psychosis (13 years) and theory of mind (14 years) were also assessed in clinic visits, but attendance was fairly low so the findings may not be representative of the whole cohort.

Birth to twenty study (1990) The transition from apartheid to democracy provided the initial context for this study from South Africa of 3,275 infants from pregnancy to adulthood [66]. A broad range of topics were addressed, including child and adolescent health and development, socio-economic factors and nutrition. Whilst retention was reasonable, the initial sample failed to recruit mother–child dyads from private delivery units. Other problems included high rural–urban migration. A range of demographic, biological, psychosocial, and behavioural information was collected on the parents antenatally, with routine birth data recorded. The postnatal environment was assessed retrospectively at 6 months. Behaviour, language, mother–infant relationship, and neurodevelopment were all assessed through 14 data collection phases from birth until 16 years of age, including face-to-face developmental assessments at 6 months and 5 years. There was no assessment of child psychopathology during this period.

Copenhagen perinatal birth cohort (1959–1961) The sample consisted of 8,820 infants born in the University Hospital in Copenhagen, Denmark [61, 83]. A range of demographic, biological, psychosocial, and behavioural information was collected on parents antenatally, and routine birth data recorded by physicians. The postnatal environment was assessed retrospectively at 1 year. Data collection continued until 33 years, but there was no data collection between 6 and 18 years, or between 18 and 33 years. Full physical examinations were conducted at 1, 3, and 6 years, with neurodevelopment (neurological maturity, neuro-motor development, psycho-motor development) assessed at 1 year. Intelligence scores were measured at 18 years using the Børge Priens Prøve (BPP) test [64] but only in 3,773 male cohort members. There was no measurement of behaviour, language or psychiatric symptoms in the early years, making it difficult to answer questions on early onset mental health and neurodevelopmental disorders.

Danish national birth cohort (1997 onwards) This study combines a birth cohort design with information from national health registers to examine outcomes that include

behavioural disorders and determinants such as social environment, genes, diet, and infection [54]. 100,000 pregnant women and their offspring constitute the sample. Despite this being a very large sample it only constitutes 30% of pregnant women in Denmark during the period of recruitment. A range of information on the prenatal environment was collected at three points during pregnancy, and birth data were obtained from records. Genetic analysis was conducted from maternal blood samples and umbilical cord blood. There is no detailed assessment of behaviour, language, social functioning, mental health or autism. A specialised autism health register could, however, be linked with the study data.

Generation R (2002–2006) This current study of 9,778 infants from the Netherlands focuses on behavioural, cognitive and physical development and their determinants in a multi-ethnic population [33, 38]. Data are being collected in 17 phases through pregnancy and the first four years of life, and at the age of 5 years all children will be invited to visit the Generation R Research Centre for detailed assessments [22]. Enrolment, based on partial data, is 61% of those eligible [38]. A sub-sample of children of Dutch origin will undergo more detailed assessment. A range of demographic, biological, psychosocial, and behavioural information was collected antenatally, with physical examination of the baby at birth (full cohort) and at 1 month. Neurodevelopment was also assessed in the Dutch origin subsample at 1 month. Measures administered periodically to the whole cohort include the child behaviour checklist [1] and the infant behaviour questionnaire [21, 67]. Whilst parent psychopathology is assessed there is no psychiatric assessment of the children and no measure of language or social functioning.

INMA (Infancia y Medio Ambiente) (2004–2005) This current Spanish multi-site study aims to examine the role of environmental pollutants on child development (<http://www.inma.imim.es/>). A sample of approximately 3,300 pregnant women was recruited from various Spanish regions. Whilst each regional sample has been recruited from a population base, the focus varies between regions and some samples are selected (e.g., only mothers giving birth to boys were recruited in Granada). Outcomes under study include neurodevelopment, milestones, asthma, and allergies whilst determinants include prenatal environmental factors (ultrasound and maternal urine). Whilst there is data collection throughout pregnancy, there is none between 12 months and 4 years of age. Neurodevelopment and social competence are measured. There is no measurement of mother–child relationship or psychopathology.

Mater-University of Queensland study of pregnancy (1981–1983) The original obstetric focus of the study

gave way to issues of child psychiatry and mental health [50]. Whilst the sample of 7,223 infants was broadly representative of public patients, no private patients were recruited leaving 42% of hospital births not enrolled. Since private insurance to cover health care is widespread in Australia, public hospitals cater to a greater number of less well-off families with an over-representation of other health and social risk factors. Disproportionate attrition from lower socio-economic groups has further reduced the representativeness of the sample. Psychosocial data were obtained from mothers during pregnancy, and birth data obtained from medical notes. Although data were collected 3–5 days after birth, the focus was on the mother's health until the next phase at 6 months. Following up to 14 years, child problem behaviour, language, and cognitive development were measured by standardised instruments, including a face-to-face assessment of the child at 5 and 14 years, but there was no categorical psychiatric assessment. Lack of data collection between 6 months and 5 years means there are important gaps in developmental information crucial to the understanding of disorders of behaviour and social communication.

Northern Finland 1 (1966) This birth cohort of 12,068 infants, from Oulu and Lapland in Finland, constitutes a representative sample (<http://kelo.oulu.fi/NFBC>). Demographic, psychosocial, and behavioural data were collected antenatally, and routine birth data were recorded. No further data collection occurred until 1 year when a face-to-face 'developmental milestones' assessment [36] examined a range of features including neurodevelopment. Cognitive development and the presence of any major neurological deficits were recorded at 14 years. Whilst the contribution of the study to the understanding of adult psychopathology has been significant, there exist few relevant measures during infancy and no measures at all between the ages of 1 and 14 years, meaning the study is unable to address key questions about neurobehavioural development and associated disorders.

Northern Finland 2 (1985–1986) In a similarly designed study to its predecessor this cohort consisted of 9,479 infants at birth [93]. Whilst some data (behaviour and cognitive development) were collected during school years (age 7 and 8), these data are not sufficient to answer key questions about neurodevelopment. Some nested case–control studies have revealed noteworthy findings on neurodevelopment and low birth weight [93] and family interaction and behavioural problems [77].

Norwegian mother and child cohort (MoBa)/autism birth cohort (ABC) Combining a prospective birth cohort and national registers this study focuses on development, birth defects, infections, neurodevelopment, and asthma in a

sample of 100,000 mother–child dyads (88,027 recruited to the end of 2007 [51, 52]. Whilst this is a very large sample, and most pregnant women in Norway were invited to participate, enrolment was between 40 and 50% of pregnancies invited to participate in any one year, and so has to be regarded as a self-selected sample. Demographic, psychosocial, behavioural, and biological measures are obtained antenatally and at birth (cord blood sample). Perinatal factors are assessed when the baby is 6-month-old. A sub-study conducted from 36 months managed by Columbia University (autism birth cohort, ABC) focuses on autism. Antenatal measures largely concern physical and diet/feeding aspects and no in-depth psychosocial or mental health issues are addressed until age 3.5 years when clinical autism diagnostics are administered to potential cases and randomly selected controls. Parental mental health is not addressed in depth.

Port Pirie study, Australia (1979) The main aim of this study was to provide evidence on the link between lead exposure in children born near a lead smelter and detrimental effects on cognitive, intellectual, and behavioural development [2]. Around 90% of pregnancies were enrolled in the study resulting in a sample of 723 infants. Blood samples were taken in pregnancy and at birth, with the perinatal environment assessed retrospectively at 6 months. Whilst intellectual functioning, behaviour, and development were measured, including face-to-face developmental assessments at 2, 4, and 7 years, the size of the sample is too low to study disorders of behaviour and communication. Furthermore, there was no psychiatric or mental health assessment. Infants at high risk of lead exposure cannot be said to be representative of the general population.

Cohorts recruited at birth

British cohort study (1970) In order to make comparisons with the 1958 National Child Development Study cohort (see below), 17,198 children were enrolled at birth from across the UK and are still being followed-up (they are now 38 years old) (<http://www.cls.ioe.ac.uk/studies.asp?section=0001000200020010>). The initial focus was on social and biological characteristics of mothers in relation to neonatal morbidity, with later data collection taking in broader social, physical, and educational development. The enrolment rate was good (at 96% of all births), and efforts were made to include all types of hospital (i.e., private, NHS, military, and prison) and home births, but only 65% of the sample was retained to 16 years (the last childhood data collection). The pre-/perinatal environment (demographic, behavioural, and medical) was assessed at birth, with no further data collection on the whole sample until

5 years (and again at 10 and 16 years). Data collected from subsamples at 22 and 42 months included a face-to-face ‘developmental screening questionnaire’ which included some assessment of the child’s motor and cognitive development. Behaviour problems, language, cognitive, and neurological development were assessed in the whole cohort using standardised instruments. There was no assessment of psychiatric symptoms and a lack of data collection within the first 5 years of life making it difficult to answer questions on early onset mental health and neurodevelopmental disorders.

Children’s health and environment in the Faroes (CHEF), cohort 1 (1986–1987) A birth cohort of 1,023 children born between March 1986 and December 1987 was established and was followed-up at age 7 and 14 years [31]. The focus was on intrauterine methylmercury exposure, as measured by concentration in mothers’ hair and cord blood at birth, and its relation to later development. Ninety percent of the original cohort was retained at age 7, but only 67% had full exposure data [31]. Eighty-five percent of the survivors of the original cohort were retained at age 14 [49]. Studies showed an association between poorer neurological functioning and methylmercury exposure, but there were no measures of child psychopathology.

Christchurch health and development study (1977) This is the only study in this review in which overall child and adolescent mental health represented a key focus from the stage of the original design [17]. The study is of 1,265 infants from Christchurch, New Zealand, followed from birth [17]. Initial enrolment rates were good whilst attrition was disproportionately from lower and middle socio-economic groups. Annual data collection took place until the cohort members reached 21 years of age, at which point 80% ($n = 1,011$) of the original cohort was retained. A range of demographic, biological, psychosocial, and behavioural information (including birth data) was collected from parents at birth, with the postnatal environment assessed retrospectively at 4 months. There were no standardised measures of behaviour, neurodevelopment, psychopathology, and language in the preschool years. Behaviour and language development were assessed through the school years, with parent–child relationship assessed at age 15–16 years. The child psychiatric self-rating scale [4] was administered at age 9–10 years, and at age 18, participants were asked about psychiatric problems since the age of 16 using a questionnaire based on the composite international diagnostic interview (CIDI) [89]. There were no face-to-face clinical assessments of the participants’ mental health. The relatively modest sample means that lower prevalence disorders such as autism were not studied.

Copenhagen County child cohort (2000) One of only two studies in this review focussing on infant psychopathology and a detailed clinical assessment at 18 months; this study involved public health nurses and health registers following 6,090 infants from Copenhagen, Denmark, from birth [72]. Within 2 weeks of birth, demographic, psychosocial, and birth data were collected from mothers, and the child's health (including mental health domains) was assessed. Through parent report, direct observation, and standardised physical and developmental assessments, information was collected at three further points in the first 10 months on the general development of the child, the relationship between mother and child, and family relations [72]. Specific developmental milestones (psychomotor development, language/communication appropriate for age, social and emotional state) were assessed at each of these early data collection points, and the mental health of the infant was assessed comprehensively, including domains of psychomotor regulation, eating, sleeping, language development, social interaction, emotional state, and mother–infant relation [72]. At 18 months 200 cases (identified through the public health nurse screening) and 200 randomly selected controls were subjected to detailed psychiatric and psychological assessment, including measures of autistic traits [71]. This study offers rich information on the first year of life, with key papers on the reliability of diagnostic tools [71] and the prevalence of psychopathology [73] in early childhood. Nevertheless, the lack of assessment between 18 months and the next phase at 5 years does not allow a full assessment of early risk and protective factors for childhood mental health problems.

National child development study (1958) Originally conceived as the perinatal mortality survey, this ongoing study recruited 98% of all births (17,414 children) in England, Scotland and Wales for 1 week in March 1958 (<http://www.cls.ioe.ac.uk/studies.asp?section=0001000211130012>). Eighty percent of the sample was retained to 16 years and follow-up continues. Midwives provided information on mothers' antenatal care, demographics, and birth data. The postnatal environment was not assessed as no further data were collected until the child reached 7 years. Parent interviews included questions on behaviour, family relationships, and the child's health (including mental health), but only the child's physical health was assessed directly. Language and cognitive development was assessed and teachers completed standardised social adjustment and behaviour measures. There were no measures of child psychopathology.

National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) study of early child care (SECC) (1991) 1,364 babies born at ten sites across the USA in 1991 were recruited to this study at birth. Unfortunately, no

data were collected (apart from recruitment information) until the end of the perinatal period (<http://secc.rti.org/summary.cfm>); 1,364 mothers were enrolled from a total of 8,986 giving birth in the sampling period. In addition to conventional exclusion criteria (e.g., medical problems), children of mothers under the age of 18, mothers who were not fluent in English, and mothers living in neighbourhoods deemed unsafe for research assistants to visit were excluded from the study. At the first data collection (1 month) infant temperament, maternal depression, parental stress, parental locus of control, parental relationship quality (as perceived by mother); and maternal separation anxiety were assessed, along with broader social and economic factors. Subsequently this cohort has been regularly followed up with a wide range of measures. In the early years these included the MacArthur communicative development inventories, the Reynell developmental language scales, the strange situation technique, the Bayley scales of infant development in the early years, as well as regular periods of observation of behaviour and environment. Later childhood data collection focused on children's lived experience, including friendships and school attainment, as well as direct measurement and observation of development progress and behaviour. Psychiatric symptoms were regularly monitored using Achenbach's child behaviour checklist, including at the most recent follow-up at age 15 years (2006).

Pacific Islands families study (2000) Physical, neurological and behavioural development were studied from birth in a cohort of 1,398 infants born to at least one parent of Pacific Island ethnicity resident in Auckland, New Zealand [55]. Enrolment was approximately 80%. No antenatal data were collected. Child behaviour, language, and neurodevelopment measures were completed in six data collection phases from 6 weeks to 6 years in addition to a number of other parental psychosocial measures. Children were assessed directly using the Bayley infant neurodevelopmental screen at 12 months and during home visits at 2, 4, and 6 years. Further data collection is planned for when the children reach 9 and 11 years of age. The relatively small sample and a lack of categorical psychiatric assessment would prevent questions about prevalence of psychiatric diagnoses and comorbidity being answered.

Pelotas birth cohort study (1993) Longitudinal epidemiological research is rare in developing countries, and the focus of this Brazilian study was necessarily broad [84, 85]. Strong recruitment resulted in a representative sample of 5,249 infants, but only a sub-sample of between 13 and 20% was followed-up, and there was no data collection between 12 months and 4 years. Full follow-up has since re-commenced with data collection at age 11 and 15 years. No data were collected antenatally, although mothers'

behaviour during pregnancy (smoking, etc.) was assessed at birth. Whilst neurodevelopment was assessed there was no measurement of behaviour, language, social functioning, mother–infant relationship or psychiatric symptoms in the early years.

Key excluded studies

There were five studies which, although not fitting the inclusion criteria, are significant to the field and worthy of note here.

Dunedin multidisciplinary health and development study (1972–1973) This was excluded from our analysis as the cohort was retrospectively identified (when the children were 3 years old), with the eligible population being those born within the defined dates and still resident within Dunedin. This ongoing study has gone to great lengths to retain its participants and at the 26-year phase collected data from 980 participants (96% of the living cohort) [59]. It has made an invaluable contribution to our understanding of gene–environment interaction in child psychopathology; Caspi et al. [9] showed that the neurotransmitter-metabolizing enzyme monoamine oxidase A (MAOA) appears to moderate the effects of maltreatment, in that high MAOA activity may be a protective factor in relation to abusive parenting. Further, Caspi et al. [9] demonstrated a moderation of the association between childhood maltreatment and adult depression by the 5-HTT (serotonin transporter) genotype. The design, however, precludes answering questions about the associations between early neurodevelopment and later psychopathology.

Millennium cohort study (2001 onwards) Focused on understanding the social circumstances surrounding birth and early childhood, this sample of 18,818 children drawn from all live births across the UK over 12 months was excluded from this review as the cohort was identified retrospectively from child benefit records at 8 months. Nevertheless, a broad range of important data have been collected, including parental background, birth data, pre- and perinatal environment, parents' mental health, maternal attachment, baby's temperament and behaviour. Children's cognitive development and emotional and behavioural problems and parenting were assessed at 3 and 5 years, and there are plans to continue to measure these in future sweeps. There are no plans to include a psychiatric assessment or any focus on rare conditions such as autism. At the most recent sweep (5 years) 79.2% of the cohort was retained.

NBR and NIR Sweden study (1973–1977) Information on 507,516 children born in Sweden between 1973 and 1977 was accessed through the National Birth Register and linked to corresponding records on the National Inpatient Register

systems between 1987 and 1995. There were 238 cases of schizophrenia diagnosed within the cohort, with pre-eclampsia presenting an increased risk for such a diagnosis [13]. However, as the schizophrenia diagnosis was made any time between the ages of 14 and 23 years of age, the extent to which this represents association with a *childhood* mental health problem is not clear from the published work.

Newcastle thousand families study (1947) All 1,142 babies born in Newcastle upon Tyne in May and June 1947 were recruited in a study originally designed to focus on infant mortality and morbidity. A broad range of data was collected, and the study expanded, with children being followed-up regularly (at least annually) until the age of 15 (at which point data were gathered on 67% of the original cohort; 28% had left Newcastle and were not followed-up until age 50) [43]. This study was excluded as no measures of childhood psychopathology, behaviour, parent–child interaction, language development or neurodevelopment were taken. IQ was measured at age 11 (the 'eleven plus' exam); however, and analyses conducted relating this to physical growth [56].

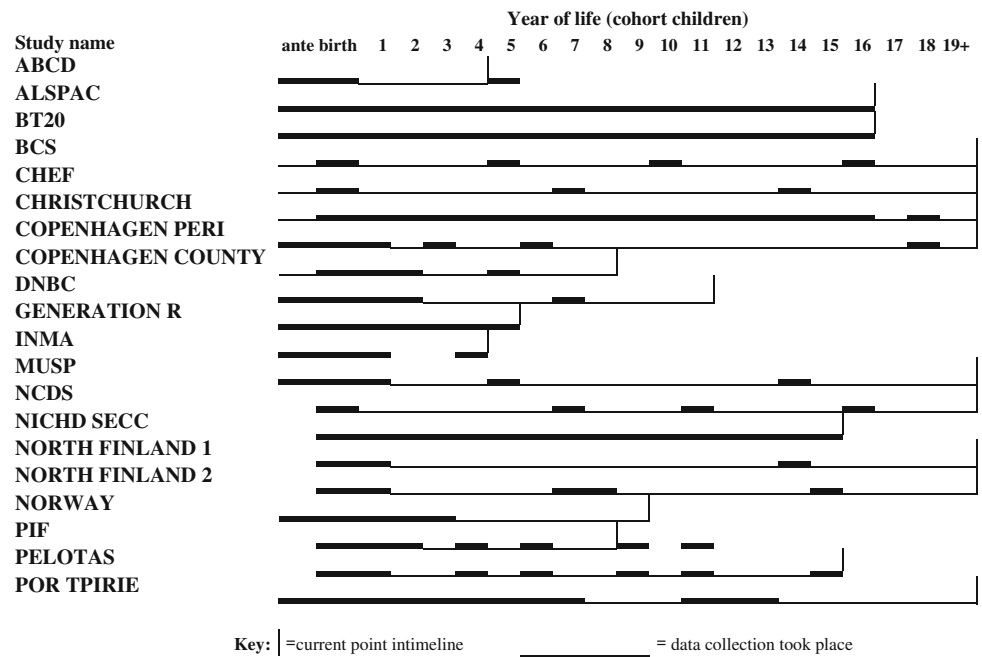
Swiss etiological study of adjustment and mental health (SESAM) (2007 onwards) This antenatally recruited cohort study began in October 2007, but as yet there are no published papers. The study website (<http://www.sesamswiss.ch>, accessed 19th March 2009) indicates that recruitment rates were low and that work on the cohort is being discontinued.

Discussion

Cohort studies have provided a rich resource for improving our understanding of how conditions develop over time and how outcomes later in life can be influenced by exposures in childhood. For example, the ALSPAC study has demonstrated how antenatal maternal anxiety is associated with conduct problems in middle childhood [25] whilst the Dunedin study has demonstrated important genetic environmental interactions in the development of psychopathology [8, 9]. These are just two examples from a wealth of data, but they illustrate how the longitudinal method is unique in its ability to elucidate developmental processes.

Despite this wealth of data, important gaps remain. Our review shows that whilst there are a number of cohort studies examining child and adolescent mental health outcomes, there are relatively few that have recruited from birth or antenatally within a population base. Without recruitment prior to babies being born, there is no way of assessing the environment (including the parents' mental health and the home environment) as a true baseline, i.e., independently of the new baby. Without recruitment from a population base there is no way to answer questions about

Fig. 1 Timeline for each included study



the dimensionality of putative risk factors for mental health problems. Where studies have met these inclusion criteria, there are often time gaps in data collection (see Fig. 1) that make it difficult to gain a full understanding of complex neurodevelopmental trajectories. Some studies have intensively gathered data in the first year or two of life, but then failed to follow children up until much later (e.g., Copenhagen County; Danish national birth cohort). On the whole, with the exception of six studies (ALSPAC, Birth to twenty, Christchurch, Generation R, NICHD SECC and Port Pirie), there is little data collection between the ages of 1 and 3 years. Similarly, apart from four studies (ALSPAC, Birth to twenty, Christchurch, and NICHD SECC), later childhood is also somewhat overlooked. Annual data collection beyond the age of 5 is rare. In many studies, however, the time period assessing children in late childhood has not yet been reached.

Further, it is relatively rare for studies to collect data on psychopathology in childhood. There are broader measures of mental health and well-being, such as parent self-report of perceived problems and more formal screening measures such as the strengths and difficulties questionnaire [27, 29]; but the direct clinical assessment of psychiatric symptoms is fairly rare, particularly in early childhood where development is most rapid. Some studies only begin to ask questions about psychopathology when participants reach their teenage years, where self-report measures and routine data sources can be more easily employed.

It would seem then that there is a trade-off between regularity of data collection and focus of study. ALSPAC and Birth to twenty have collected data on an annual basis on children who are now young adults, but these studies

have had a broad focus. They tell us much about children’s lives but in doing so cannot focus on every aspect of development. Sub-studies such as the ALSPAC children in focus cohort and nested sub-studies on high scoring cases such as that within the Copenhagen County study are a useful means to address this dilemma. Ideally, however, future research should aim to take in a large population with regular (at least annual) data collection and focus specifically on mental health outcomes. This is the best means by which we can expand our understanding of developmental trajectories of *all* children, thus enhancing our ability to help the most vulnerable.

Diagnostic categories, whilst an invaluable clinical tool, inevitably encourage a hypothetico-deductive form of reasoning. They are also useful tools in research, but as Pickles and Angold [57] state, researchers need to work on developing a more ‘fluid set of tools’ to allow us to better analyse and communicate issues of psychopathology. Clinical researchers working with prospective study designs have a responsibility to not be constrained by current thinking. The reality remains that we know relatively little about rarer disorders such as autism and reactive attachment disorder, and the clear presence of overlap between conditions means we are unlikely to be able to develop something approaching a ‘clear picture’ without taking a more open and inductive approach to formulating research questions.

Birth cohorts are used for a variety of purposes, and this review highlights differences between cohort designs which may affect how their findings can be interpreted. This area of research often needs large sample sizes, and the ideal design for a cohort investigating the full breadth of childhood psychopathology would involve the entire population

of an area born in a given time period. Studies such as the British cohort study very clearly achieved this, recruiting 96% of all births in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland within a single week. This study was, however, conducted in 1970, and it is unlikely that in the current climate such good coverage would be achieved. Other studies have taken longer to obtain very large cohorts. The Danish national birth cohort and the Norwegian mother and baby study have recruited very large samples from a population base. These large numbers were recruited by sampling a small percentage of births in any one time frame over a number of years. This means that they are ultimately only representative of a small proportion of all pregnancies within the target population over that time period. Only with very good routine data on the whole population, which both Norway and Denmark have, is it possible to say how representative these participants are of the general population. The Spanish INMA study has a widely dispersed sample that has been partially selectively recruited from target populations. Whilst there is no doubt that a wealth of important data can be obtained from this large multi-centre study, it may be difficult to make generalisations from the findings of this study to the broader population.

There are also many similarities in methodology between the cohort studies reviewed here, and it is possible that these can be utilised to generate larger datasets and possibly meta-analyses, especially in the case of regions where good routinely collected data are available. But as demonstrated in Tables 5–12, it is rare that similar measures have been used across cohorts. Any new cohort should be designed in the context of what data is already available and in consideration of methodology already being applied.

Swanson and Wadhwa [76] address critical issues which should be taken into account in birth cohort studies of developmental psychopathology. These include: the simultaneous assessment of putative risk factors in the same cohort; the longitudinal assessment of environmental factors from before conception through pregnancy; foetal life, birth, and infancy; and finally, the investigation of the interplay between gene and environment, as found in the Dunedin study [8, 9], which may be by the epigenetic modification of nuclear DNA and chromatin structure during critical periods in early development and over time and under various environmental conditions [14, 86]. These issues must all be considered in birth cohort studies if crucial details about child neurodevelopmental and psychiatric disorders are to be understood. Such studies, however, are likely to be expensive. Ideally, future birth cohort studies will be structured so as to include all known potential risk/protective factors and confounders, begin in the antenatal period, continue with frequent measures throughout childhood of all the relevant variables and include regular in depth assessments of mental health

outcomes in a population powered to examine both common and rare disorders. Clearly in any study, these considerations need to be balanced against cost. The use of excellent routine datasets, such as those available in Scandinavia and in some parts of the UK, can be a useful way of maintaining regular data gathering in large representative populations when regular face-to-face data gathering is unfeasible. Researchers nevertheless need to be aware of the dangers of very large studies, yielding false positive findings, or findings which are statistically significant but of limited public health importance.

To date there is no single cohort that can tell us all we need to know about the full range of very early processes which may contribute to the development of problems with social relationships. For example, neurodevelopmental problems are more common in children living in situations of low environmental stimulation such as institutions [68]. We do not yet know to what extent this observation is explained by genetics, the environment or their interaction. There is a lack of basic observation of children in the very early years in the existing studies and innovative methods for capturing early social interactions among large numbers of families which need to be developed to tackle this issue.

Despite the issues raised in this paper regarding previous birth cohort research, it is clear that this is a methodology that continues to develop and thus enhance the knowledge base on child and adolescent mental health outcomes. This review demonstrates what birth cohort studies can add to cross sectional data. They allow for the investigation into factors that are not possible to examine in cross-sectional studies, for example, risk factors, onset and early symptoms of neurodevelopmental and mental health problems. Examining the methodology of previous studies allows this progress to continue and helps build the path for the development of an optimal birth cohort design and method in the future. In addition, it leads to further questions regarding birth cohort studies, most notably the potential for a further systematic review examining the results of the studies reviewed in this paper.

Limitations

This review has set out to offer a comprehensive account of birth cohort studies derived from a population base that can answer questions on the precursors of child and adolescent mental health problems. We have, however, relied on the search term 'birth cohort' to identify what is a large and diverse body of work. Whilst this has been supplemented by secondary referencing and consultation with colleagues, the fact that some studies only came to light as a result of this supplementary research means that the possibility always remains that further studies exist but have not been documented here. Furthermore, whilst every attempt has

been made to identify all data collected within each study, including contacting study staff directly, there remains the possibility that important measures that would have informed this review have been inadvertently omitted. Similarly, although we applied a broad definition of ‘child and adolescent mental health’ (see Tables 5–12, online) this may not include all measures that may be of interest to all readers. The measures have been listed according to broad category, but we acknowledge there may be differences of opinion about the categorisation of some measures (e.g., whether to label as temperament or behaviour).

This review has focused on the measures used in birth cohort studies in relation to child and adolescent mental health outcomes, but has not explored the findings of these studies. To do so would have made this paper too lengthy, and so exploration could present an opportunity for future reviewers. It is, however, debatable whether large cohort studies should be entirely hypothesis driven, or should simply be resources for asking questions which may or may not have been formulated at the time of data collection. Some questions that have been answered within cohorts could not have been asked at the start of the study because technology and scientific understanding have advanced throughout the life of the study.

Conclusion

This review demonstrates that whilst there are a number of population-based birth cohort studies that measure mental health outcomes in childhood, no study gives a broad view of the development of child and adolescent psychopathology or of the spectrum of healthy and pathological social relationships.

Acknowledgments Philip Wilson’s research career award in infant mental health was funded by the Scottish Government Health Department Chief Scientist Office. Financial support for this project was provided by Greater Glasgow NHS Board Primary Care Division Research and Development Directorate. The support of the Scottish ABCD study core group and the birth cohort study research teams who provided information for this paper is gratefully acknowledged. Special thanks to Jon Heron for providing detailed documentation on the ALSPAC study and Emma Lidstone for helping to gather information for this paper.

Conflict of interest statement We have no conflict of interest.

References

- Achenbach T, Edelbrock C (1983) Manual for the child behavior checklist and revised child behavior profile. University of Vermont, Burlington
- Baghurst PA, Tong S-L, McMichael AJ, Robertson EF, Wigg NR, Vimpani GV (1992) Determinants of blood lead concentrations to age 5 years in a birth cohort study of children living in the lead smelting city of Port Pirie and surrounding areas. *Arch Environ Health* 47:203–210
- Baird G, Simonoff E, Pickles A, Chandler S, Loucas T, Meldrum D et al (2006) Prevalence of disorders of the autism spectrum in a population cohort of children in South Thames: the special needs and autism project (SNAP). *Lancet* 368:210–215
- Beitchman JH, Raman S, Carlson J, Clegg M, Kruidenier B (1985) The development and validation of the children’s self-report psychiatric rating scale. *J Am Acad Child Psychiatry* 24:413–428
- Benhadi N, Wiersinga WM, Reitsma JB, Vrijkotte TGM, van der Wal MF, Bonsel GJ (2007) Ethnic differences in TSH but not in free T4 concentrations or TPO antibodies during pregnancy. *Clin Endocrinol* 66:765–770
- Besag FM (2006) Cognitive and behavioral outcomes of epileptic syndromes: implications for education and clinical practice. *Epilepsia* 47:119–125
- Campbell M, Fitzpatrick R, Haines A, Kinmonth AL, Sandercock P, Spiegelhalter D et al (2000) Framework for design and evaluation of complex interventions to improve health. *BMJ* 321:694–696
- Caspi A, McClay J, Moffitt TE, Mill J, Martin J, Craig IW et al (2002) Role of genotype in the cycle of violence in maltreated children. *Science* 297:851–854
- Caspi A, Sugden K, Moffitt TE, Taylor A, Craig IW, Harrington H et al (2003) Influence of Life Stress on Depression: Moderation by a Polymorphism in the 5-HTT Gene. *Science* 301:386–389
- Cassell T, Messinger D, Ibanez L, Haltigan J, Acosta S, Buchman A (2007) Early social and emotional communication in the infant siblings of children with autism spectrum disorders: an examination of the broad phenotype. *J Autism Dev Disord* 37:122–132
- Coghill D, Nigg J, Rothenberger A, Sonuga-Barke E, Tannock R (2005) Whither causal models in the neuroscience of ADHD? *Dev Sci* 8:105–114
- Dahlgren SO, Gillberg C (1989) Symptoms in the first two years of life. A preliminary population study of infantile autism. *Eur Arch Psychiatry Neurol Sci* 238:169–174
- Dalman C, Allebeck P, Cullberg J, Grunewald C, Koster M (1999) Obstetric complications and the risk of schizophrenia: a longitudinal study of a national birth cohort. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 56:234–240
- Drake AJ, Walker BR (2004) The intergenerational effects of fetal programming: non-genomic mechanisms for the inheritance of low birth weights and cardiovascular risk. *J Endocrinol* 180:1–16
- Earls F, Mezzacappa E (2005) Conduct and oppositional disorders. In: Rutter M (ed) *Child and adolescent psychiatry*, pp 419–436
- Egger HL, Angold A (2006) Common emotional and behavioral disorders in preschool children: presentation, nosology, and epidemiology. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 47:313–337
- Fergusson DM, Horwood LJ (2001) The Christchurch health and development study: review of findings on child and adolescent mental health. *Aust NZ J Psychiatry* 35:287–296
- Fombonne E (1999) The epidemiology of autism: a review. *Psychol Med* 29:769–786
- Frick PJ (2006) Developmental pathways to conduct disorder. *Child Adolesc Psychiatr Clin N Am* 15:311–331
- Gamliel I, Yirmiya N, Sigman M (2007) The development of young siblings of children with autism from 4 to 54 months. *J Autism Dev Disord* 37:171–183
- Gartstein MA, Rothbart MK (2003) Studying infant temperament via the revised infant behavior questionnaire. *Infant Behav Dev* 26:64–86

22. Generation R study website (2008) The Generation R Study. http://www.generationr.nl/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=3. Accessed 10 Mar 2008
23. Gillberg C, Wing L (1999) Autism: not an extremely rare disorder. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 99:399–406
24. Gillberg C, Ehlers S, Schaumann H, Jakobsson G, Dahlgren SO, Lindblom R et al (1990) Autism under age 3 years: a clinical study of 28 cases referred for autistic symptoms in infancy. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 31:921–934
25. Glover V, O'Connor TG (2002) Effects of antenatal stress and anxiety. Implications for development and psychiatry. *Br J Psychiatry* 280:389–391
26. Golding J, Pembrey ME, Jones R, the ALSPAC Study Team (2001) ALSPAC—the Avon longitudinal study of parents and children. I. Study methodology. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 15:74–87
27. Goodman R (2001) Psychometric properties of the strengths and difficulties questionnaire. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 40:1337–1345
28. Goodman R, Ford T, Richards H, Gatward R, Meltzer H (2000) The development and well-being assessment: description and initial validation of an integrated assessment of child and adolescent psychopathology. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 41:645–655
29. Goodman R, Ford T, Simmons H, Gatward R, Meltzer H (2003) Using the strengths and difficulties questionnaire (SDQ) to screen for child psychiatric disorders in a community sample. *Int Rev Psychiatry* 15:166–172
30. Grandjean P, Weihe P, Jorgensen PJ, Clarkson T, Cernichiari E, Videro T (1992) Impact of maternal seafood diet on fetal exposure to mercury, selenium and lead. *Arch Environ Health* 47:185–195
31. Grandjean P, White RF, Weihe P, Jorgensen PJ (2003) Neurotoxic risk caused by stable and variable exposure to methylmercury from seafood. *Ambul Pediatr* 3:18–23
32. Hardeman W, Sutton S, Griffin S, Johnston M, White A, Wareham NJ et al (2005) A causal modelling approach to the development of theory-based behaviour change programmes for trial evaluation. *Health Educ Res* cyh022
33. Hofman A, Jaddoe VWV, Mackenbach JP, Moll HA, Snijders RFM, Steegers EAP et al (2004) Growth, development and health from early fetal life until young adulthood: the Generation R Study. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 18:61
34. Hultman CM, Torrang A, Tuvblad C, Cnattingius S, Larsson JO, Lichtenstein P (2007) Birth weight and attention-deficit/hyperactivity symptoms in childhood and early adolescence: a prospective Swedish twin study. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 46:370–377
35. Indredavik MS, Brubakk AM, Romundstad P, Vik T (2007) Prenatal smoking exposure and psychiatric symptoms in adolescence. *Acta Paediatr* 96:377–382
36. Isohanni M, Jones PB, Moilanen K, Rantakallio P, Veijola J, Oja H et al (2001) Early developmental milestones in adult schizophrenia and other psychoses. A 31-year follow-up of the Northern Finland 1966 Birth Cohort. *Schizophr Res* 52:1–19
37. Iverson J, Wozniak R (2007) Variation in vocal-motor development in infant siblings of children with autism. *J Autism Dev Disord* 37:158–170
38. Jaddoe VWV, Mackenbach JP, Moll HA, Steegers EAP, Tiemeier H, Verhulst FC et al (2006) The Generation R Study: design and cohort profile. *Eur J Epidemiol* 21:475–484
39. Kadesjö C, Hägglöf B, Kadesjö B, Gillberg C (2003) Attention-deficit-hyperactivity disorder with and without oppositional defiant disorder in 3- to 7-year-old children. *Dev Med Child Neurol* 45:693–699
40. Karnik NS, McMullin MA, Steiner H (2006) Disruptive behaviors: conduct and oppositional disorders in adolescents. *Adolesc Med Clin* 17:97–114
41. Kim-Cohen J, Arseneault L, Caspi A, Tomas MP, Taylor A, Moffitt TE (2005) Validity of DSM-IV conduct disorder in 41/2–5-year-old children: a longitudinal epidemiological study. *Am J Psychiatry* 162:1108–1117
42. Koivu M, Hartikainen AL, Sipila P, Rantakallio P (1988) The changing panorama of neonatal illness. A prospective birth cohort study in northern Finland in 1966 and 1985. *Arctic Med Res* 47(51):9–520
43. Lamont DW, Parker L, Cohen MA, White M, Bennett SMA, Unwin NC et al (1998) Early life and later determinants of adult disease: a 50 year follow-up study of the Newcastle Thousand Families cohort. *Public Health* 112:85–93
44. Landa R, Garrett-Mayer E (2006) Development in infants with autism spectrum disorders: a prospective study. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 47:629–638
45. Loh A, Soman T, Brian J, Bryson T, Roberts W, Szatmari P (2007) Stereotyped motor behaviors associated with autism in high-risk infants: a pilot videotape analysis of a sibling sample. *J Autism Dev Disord* 37:25–36
46. Maughan B, Taylor C, Taylor A, Butler N, Bynner J (2001) Pregnancy smoking and childhood conduct problems: a causal association? *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 42:1021–1028
47. Merin N, Young G, Ozonoff S, Rogers S (2007) Visual fixation patterns during reciprocal social interaction distinguish a subgroup of 6-month old infants at-risk for autism from comparison infants. *J Autism Dev Disord* 37:108–121
48. Moffitt TE, Arseneault L, Jaffee SR, Kim-Cohen J, Koenen KC, Odgers CL et al (2008) Research review: DSM-V conduct disorder: research needs for an evidence base. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 49:3–33
49. Murata K, Weihe P, Budtz-Jorgensen E, Jorgensen PJ, Grandjean P (2004) Delayed brainstem auditory evoked potential latencies in 14-year-old children exposed to methylmercury. *J Pediatr* 144:177–183
50. Najman J, Bor W, O'Callaghan M, Williams G, Aird R, Shuttelwood GJ (2005) Cohort profile: the Mater-University of Queensland study of pregnancy (MUSP). *Int J Epidemiol* 34:992–997
51. Norway Autism Birth Cohort (ABC) Study (2008) Status of the ABC project. <http://www.abc.columbia.edu/Status.html>. Accessed 7 Mar 2008
52. Norwegian Institute of Public Health (2005) Protocol: the Norwegian mother and child cohort study. <http://www.fhi.no/dav/14DFADA9F4.pdf>
53. P³G Observatory (2007) P³G Observatory study catalogue. <http://www.p3gobservatory.org/studySearch.do?methodToCall=executeGetStudyDetail&id=100020>. Accessed 9 Jan 2008
54. Olsen J, Melbye M, Olsen SF, Sorensen TIA, Aaby P, Andersen AN et al (2001) The Danish national birth cohort—its background, structure and aim. *Scand J Public Health* 29:300–307
55. Paterson J, Tukuitonga C, Abbott M, Feehan SP, Percival T, Butler S et al (2002) Pacific Islands families: first two years of life study. Technical Report 1, Auckland University of Technology
56. Pearce MS, Deary IJ, Young AH, Parker L (2005) Growth in early life and childhood IQ at age 11 years: the Newcastle thousand families study. *Int J Epidemiol* 34:673–677
57. Pickles A, Angold A (2003) Natural categories or fundamental dimensions: On carving nature at the joints and the rearticulation of psychopathology. *Dev Psychopathol* 15:259–551
58. Posserud MB, Lundervold AJ, Gillberg C (2006) Autistic features in a total population of 7–9-year-old children assessed by the

- ASSQ (autism spectrum screening questionnaire). *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 47:167–175
59. Poulton R, Hancox R, Milne B, Baxter J, Scott K, Wilson N (2006) The Dunedin multidisciplinary health and development study: are its findings consistent with the overall New Zealand population? *N Z Med J* 119
 60. Power C (1992) A review of child health in the 1958 birth cohort: national child development study. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 6:81–110
 61. Raine A, Breannan PA, Mednick SA (1994) Birth complications combined with early maternal rejection at age 1 year predispose to violent crime at age 18 years. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 51:984–988
 62. Rantakallio P, Koiranen M, Mottonen J (1992) Association of perinatal events, epilepsy, and central nervous system trauma with juvenile delinquency. *Arch Dis Child* 67:1459–1461
 63. Rapin I, Tuchman RF (2008) What is new in autism? *Curr Opin Neurol* 21:143–149
 64. Rasch G (1980) Probabilistic models for some intelligence and attainment tests. University of Chicago Press, Chicago
 65. Read J, van Os J, Morrison AP, Ross CA (2005) Childhood trauma, psychosis and schizophrenia: a literature review with theoretical and clinical implications. *Acta Paediatrica Scandinavica* 112:330–350
 66. Richter LM, Norris SA, De Wet T (2004) Transition from birth to ten to birth to twenty: the South African cohort reaches 13 years of age. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol* 18:290–301
 67. Rothbart MK (1981) Measurement of temperament in infancy. *Child Dev* 52:569–578
 68. Rutter M, O'Connor TG, The English Romanian adoptees (ERA) study team (2004) Are there biological programming effects for psychological development? Findings from a study of Romanian adoptees. *Dev Psychol* 40:81–94
 69. Shaw P, Greenstein D, Lerch J, Clasen L, Lenroot R, Gogtay N et al (2006) Intellectual ability and cortical development in children and adolescents. *Nature* 440:676–679
 70. Shulruf B, Morton S, Goodyear-Smith S, O'Loughlin C, Dixon R (2007) Designing multidisciplinary longitudinal studies of human development: analyzing past research to inform methodology. *Eval Health Prof* 30:207–228
 71. Skovgaard AM, Houmann T, Christiansen E (2005) The reliability of the ICD-10 and the DC 0–3 in an epidemiological sample of children 1 1/2 years of age. *Infant Ment Health J* 26:470–480
 72. Skovgaard AM, Olsen EM, Houmann T, Christiansen E, Samberg V, Lichtenberg A et al (2005) The Copenhagen county child cohort: design of a longitudinal study of child mental health. *Scand J Public Health* 33:197–202
 73. Skovgaard AM, Houmann T, Christiansen E, Landorph S, Jørgensen T, CCC 2000 Study Team et al (2007) The prevalence of mental health problems in children 1(1/2) years of age—the Copenhagen child cohort 2000. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 48:62–70
 74. Stefanotis GA, Baron IS (2007) Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: a neuropsychological perspective towards DSM-V. *Neuropsychol Rev* 17:5–38
 75. Stright AD, Gallagher KC, Kelley K (2008) Infant temperament moderates relations between maternal parenting in early childhood and children's adjustment in first grade. *Child Dev* 79:186–200
 76. Swanson JD, Wadhwa PM (2008) Developmental origins of child mental health disorders. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 49:1009–1019
 77. Taanila A, Laitinen E, Moilanen I, Jarvelin M-R (2002) Effects of family interaction in the child's behavior in single-parent or reconstructed families. *Fam Process* 41:693–708
 78. Tong S-L, Baghurst PA, Sawyer MG, Burns J, McMichael AJ (1998) Declining blood lead levels and changes in cognitive function during childhood. *J Am Med Assoc* 280:1915–1919
 79. Toth K, Dawson G, Meltzoff A, Greenson J, Fein D (2007) Early social, imitation, play, and language abilities of young non-autistic siblings of children with autism. *J Autism Dev Disord* 37:145–157
 80. van der Wal et al (2006) Methods ABCD—study
 81. van Eijsden M, van der Wal MF, Bonsel GJ (2006) Folic acid knowledge and use in a multi-ethnic pregnancy cohort: the role of language proficiency (miscellaneous). *BJOG* 113(144):6–1451
 82. Veenstra-Vander WJ, Christian SL, Cook EHJ (2004) Autism as a paradigmatic complex genetic disorder. *Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet* 5:379–405
 83. Ventegodt S, Flensburg-Madsen T, Anderson NJ, Merrick J (2005) Events in pregnancy, delivery, and infancy and long-term effects on global quality of life: results from the Copenhagen perinatal birth cohort 1959–61. *Med Sci Monit* 11:CR357–CR365
 84. Victora CG, Hallal PC, Araujo CLP, Menezes AMB, Wells JCK, Barros FC (2007) Cohort profile: the 1993 Pelotas (Brazil) birth cohort study. *Int J Epidemiol* 1–5
 85. Victora CG, Araujo CLP, Menezes A, Hallal P, Vieira M, Neuzling M (2006) Methodological aspects of the 1993 Pelotas (Brazil) birth cohort study. *Rev Saude Publica* 40:39–46
 86. Waterland RA, Dolinoy DC, Lin JR, Smith CA, Shi X, Tahiliani KG (2006) Maternal methyl supplements increase offspring DNA methylation at Axin fused. *Genesis* 44:401–406
 87. Wigg NR, Vimpani GV, McMichael AJ, Baghurst PA, Robertson EF, Roberts RJ (1988) Port Pirie cohort study: childhood blood lead and neuropsychological development at age two years. *J Epidemiol Community Health* 42:213–219
 88. Williams JG, Higgins JPT, Brayne CEG (2006) Systematic review of prevalence studies of autism spectrum disorders. *Arch Dis Child* 91:8–15
 89. World Health Organisation (1993) The ICD-10 classification of mental and behavioural disorders: diagnostic criteria for research. World Health Organisation, Geneva
 90. Yeargin-Allsopp M, Rice C, Karapurkar T et al (2003) Prevalence of autism in a US metropolitan area. *JAMA* 289:49–55
 91. Yirmiya N, Ozonoff S (2007) The very early autism phenotype. *J Autism Dev Disord* 37:1–11
 92. Yirmiya N, Gamliel I, Pilowsky T, Feldman R, Baron-Cohen S, Sigman M (2006) The development of siblings of children with autism at 4 and 14 months: social engagement, communication, and cognition. *J Child Psychol Psychiatry* 47:511–523
 93. Ylihervä A, Olsen P, Jarvelin M-R (2001) Linguistic skills in relation to neurological findings at 8 years of age in children born preterm. *Logoped Phoniatr Vocol* 26:66–75
 94. Zwaigenbaum L, Bryson S, Rogers T, Roberts W, Brian J, Szatmari P (2005) Behavioral manifestations of autism in the first year of life. *Int J Dev Neurosci* 23:143–152