

It is illegal to post this copyrighted PDF on any website. Early-Life Injuries and the Development of Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder

Theresa Wimberley, PhDa,b,c,*; Isabell Brikell, PhDa,b,c; Emil M. Pedersen, MSca,b,c; Esben Agerbo, DrMedSca,b,c; Bjarni J. Vilhjálmsson, PhDa,b,c; Clara Albiñana, MSca,b,c; Florian Privé, PhDa,b,c; Anita Thapar, PhDd; Kate Langley, PhD^{d,e}; Lucy Riglin, PhD^d; Marianne Simonsen, PhD^{c,f}; Helena S. Nielsen, PhD^f; Anders D. Børglum, PhDa,g,h; Merete Nordentoft, DrMedSca,i; Preben B. Mortensen, DrMedSca,b,c; and Søren Dalsgaard, PhDa,b,c

ABSTRACT

Objective: To estimate phenotypic and familial association between early-life injuries and attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and the genetic contribution to the association using polygenic risk score for ADHD (PRS-ADHD) and genetic correlation analyses.

Methods: Children born in Denmark between 1995-2010 (n = 786,543) were followed from age 5 years until a median age of 14 years (interquartile range: 10–18 years). Using ICD-10 diagnoses, we estimated hazard ratios (HRs) and absolute risks of ADHD by number of hospital/emergency ward-treated injuries by age 5. In a subset of ADHD cases and controls born 1995 to 2005 who had genetic data available (n = 16,580), we estimated incidence rate ratios (IRRs) for the association between PRS-ADHD and number of injuries before age 5 and the genetic correlation between ADHD and any injury before age 5.

Results: Injuries were associated with ADHD (HR = 1.61; 95% CI, 1.55-1.66) in males (HR = 1.59; 1.53-1.65) and females (HR = 1.65; 1.54-1.77), with a doseresponse relationship with number of injuries. The absolute ADHD risk by age 15 was 8.4% (3+ injuries) vs 3.1% (no injuries). ADHD was also associated with injuries in relatives, with a stronger association in first-than second-degree relatives. PRS-ADHD was marginally associated with the number of injuries in the general population (IRR = 1.06; 1.00-1.14), with a genetic correlation of 0.53 (0.21-0.85).

Conclusions: Early-life injuries in individuals and their relatives were associated with a diagnosis of ADHD. However, even in children with the most injuries, more than 90% were not diagnosed with ADHD by age 15. Despite a low positive predictive value and that the impact of unmeasured factors such as parental behavior remains unclear, results indicate that the association is partly explained by genetics, suggesting that early-life injuries may represent or herald early behavioral manifestations of ADHD.

J Clin Psychiatry 2022;83(1):21m14033

To cite: Wimberley T, Brikell I, Pedersen EM, et al. Early-life injuries and the development of $attention-deficit/hyperactivity\ disorder.\ \textit{J Clin Psychiatry}.\ 2022; 83 (1): 21 m 14033.$

To share: https://doi.org/10.4088/JCP.21m14033

© Copyright 2022 Physicians Postgraduate Press, Inc.

^aThe Lundbeck Foundation Initiative for Integrative Psychiatric Research (iPSYCH), Copenhagen and Aarhus, Denmark

ttention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is more difficult to validly diagnose before 5 years of age, as the diagnostic criteria relate mainly to older children, and the clinical presentation of ADHD may differ in preschool and school. Besides subthreshold symptoms of inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity, little is known about earlylife manifestations of ADHD.¹ In typically developing children, impulsive and risk-taking behavior is more common at a younger age,² as are injuries.^{3,4} The ability to plan ahead and foresee unsafe situations improves with age, as executive brain functions mature,⁵ and this cognitive maturation is paralleled by a decrease in the risk of injuries.⁶ Since the 1960s, studies of preschool children have found injuries to be correlated with inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity.7-11 Meta-analyses provide strong evidence that individuals with ADHD have increased risk of emergency ward visits¹² and unintentional injuries. 13-15 Traumatic brain injury (TBI) may be causally linked to ADHD, 16-18 whereas literature on whether other injuries early in life tend to precede a diagnosis of ADHD is sparse.

ADHD is a neurodevelopmental disorder, 19 with heritability estimates of around 74%.²⁰ Independently derived ADHD polygenic risk score (ADHD-PRS) predicts ADHD status,²¹ subthreshold ADHD symptoms,²² and other neurodevelopmental traits in the general population.²³ Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) recently identified several genomewide significant loci and estimated that common genetic variants explain 22% of the heritability of ADHD.²⁴

Less is known about the etiology of early-life injuries. Recently, a Danish register-based study found maternal depression to be associated with injuries during early childhood, ²⁵ and depression and ADHD are genetically correlated.²⁴ A twin study suggested a small genetic contribution to injuries before age 5, with most variance

^bNational Centre for Register-based Research (NCRR), Department of Economics and Business Economics, Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark

^cCentre for Integrated Register-based Research, Aarhus University (CIRRAU), Aarhus,

^dDivision of Psychological Medicine and Clinical Neurosciences, MRC Centre for $Neuropsychiatric \,Genetics \,and \,Genomics, \,Cardiff \,University, \,Cardiff, \,United \,Kingdom \,Anderson \,A$

eSchool of Psychology, Cardiff University, Cardiff, United Kingdom

^fDepartment of Economics and Business Economics, School of Business and Social Sciences,

Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark ${}^{g} Department \ of \ Biomedicine \ and \ Centre \ for \ Integrative \ Sequencing, \ iSEQ, \ Aarhus$

University, Aarhus, Denmark ^hCenter for Genomics and Personalized Medicine, Central Region Denmark and Aarhus University, Aarhus, Denmark

ⁱCORE, Mental Health Center Copenhagen, Copenhagen University Hospital, Copenhagen,

^{*}Corresponding author: Theresa Wimberley, PhD, The National Centre for Registerbased Research, Aarhus BSS, Aarhus University, Fuglesangs Allé 26, DK-8210 Aarhus V

It is illegal to post this copyrighted PDF on any website.

Clinical Points

- Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is associated with increased injury risk. Yet, it is unknown whether early-life injuries are early manifestations of ADHD and possibly linked to ADHD genetics in the general population.
- In clinical assessments of schoolchildren suspected of having ADHD, information on number of sustained injuries before age 5 may further support the diagnosis of ADHD, as these behaviors are genetically linked to one another.

explained by child-specific environmental effects (including ADHD symptoms) and familial effects, several of which are known risk factors for ADHD, such as low socioeconomic status (SES) and young and single parenthood.²⁶ Similarly, a Finnish twin study found little indication of a genetic contribution to injuries in adults.²⁷ However, Acar et al²⁸ found that fathers of children admitted to the emergency ward due to an injury had higher ADHD symptom scores themselves compared with fathers of children acutely admitted to hospital due to a throat infection. The crossgenerational association between ADHD and injuries may be explained by home environment, parental behavior, parent-child interactions, or genetics.

We hypothesize that, similarly to early subthreshold symptoms of ADHD, injuries before age 5 may be early manifestations of ADHD and may associate with ADHD genetic liability. Using a large Danish population-based cohort, our aims were to (1) estimate the association between the number of injuries before age 5 and a later diagnosis of ADHD, (2) estimate the association between early-life injuries in siblings and parents and the risk of ADHD, and (3) estimate the association between ADHD-PRS and the number of early-life injuries in the general population as well as the genetic correlations between ADHD and earlylife injuries.

METHODS

Data Sources

Since 1968, the Danish Civil Registration System²⁹ has held data on personal identification number, sex, date of birth, and continuously updated vital status of all persons living in Denmark, enabling accurate linkage of individuallevel data across registers. The Danish National Patient Register (DNPR) and the Danish Psychiatric Central Research Register (DPCRR) hold data on all inpatient admissions and outpatient and emergency ward visits from 1995 onward and provided data on injuries and psychiatric disorders diagnosed in hospital departments. 30,31 Diagnoses were registered according to the International Classification of Diseases, 8th revision (ICD-8) in 1969-1993 and 10th revision (ICD-10)³² since 1994. The Danish Neonatal Screening Biobank provided dried blood spots, and the Integrative Psychiatric Research (iPSYCH) consortium processed these for genotyping.³³

This was a population-based cohort study of individuals born in Denmark of Danish-born parents between January 1, 1995, and December 31, 2010, and living in Denmark at age 5. Individuals were excluded if they fulfilled any of these criteria before age 5: ADHD diagnosis or filled prescriptions of ADHD medication, TBI, or disease of the nervous system. Genetic analyses relied on the populationbased iPSYCH2012 case-cohort, including all ADHD cases (N = 18,726) and 2% random sample of the general population (subcohort) (N = 30,000).³³ DNA collection, genotyping, and quality control have been described elsewhere.³³ Included individuals (n = 16,580) fulfilled these criteria: singletons; born between January 1, 1995, and December 31, 2005; alive and residing in Denmark at age 1; both parents born in Denmark; and no diagnosis of TBI before age 5. We further restricted to individuals of European ancestry³⁴ and for genetic correlation analyses to unrelated individuals.³⁵ See Supplementary Tables 1 and 2 for codes and flow of exclusions of participants.

Early-Life Injuries

We defined early-life injury in cohort members and their siblings as a hospital-treated injury before age 5. This age cutoff ensured complete coverage of injuries and that injuries preceded the ADHD diagnosis. We included diagnoses of injuries from all hospital contacts (inpatient, outpatient, and emergency ward visits), excluding TBIs (Supplementary Table 1) and contacts due to self-harm (ICD-10: X60-X84, or contact reason = 4). These unintentional injuries, not including TBIs, are henceforth termed injuries. Injuries were defined as any (yes/no) and as number of injuries (0, 1, 2, 3+). For number of injuries before age 5, consecutive injury contacts within 60 days were considered as 1 injury. An overview of injuries and their sex distribution are shown in Supplementary Table 1.

Injuries in Relatives

Parental injuries were based on ICD-8/-10 codes (Supplementary Table 1) and defined as at least 2 inpatient admissions due to injuries before 20 years of age, as data on outpatient contacts and emergency ward visits were available only from 1995 onward. For sibling exposures, the study population was restricted to children having at least 1 full/half-sibling fulfilling the same inclusion criteria as the index child, and the exposure measure was 1 if any sibling had an injury before age 5, and 0 otherwise. Additionally, for full siblings, the average number of injuries before age 5 was calculated and classified into 4 categories in line with previous research³⁶: no injuries,]0-1] (interval not including 0 and including 1),]1-2], and > 2 injuries.

Diagnoses of ADHD

Using data from DPCRR and DNPR, we defined ADHD as the first hospital contact to a psychiatric, pediatric, or neurologic department with a diagnosis of ADHD (ICD-10 codes F90.x, F98.8) after the age of 5. ADHD subtypes

Table 1. Rates and Hazard Ratios of ADHD, Comparing Individuals With No vs Any Injuries and vs Number of Injuries Before Age 5^a

	N	Person-years	N (ADHD)	HR (95% CI)
All	786,543	6,910,193	23,107	
No injuries ≥1 injury ^b 0 1 2 3+	693,852 92,691 693,852 67,077 19,014 6,600	6,120,395 789,798 6,120,395 572,698 160,862 56,239	18,850 4,257 18,850 2,769 1,007 481	1 1.61 (1.55–1.66) 1 1.45 (1.40–1.51) 1.83 (1.72–1.95) 2.48 (2.27–2.72)
Males	401,758	3,495,504	16,191	
No injuries ≥1 injury 0 1 2 3+	345,125 56,660 345,125 39,936 12,219 4,505	3,019,195 476,309 3,019,195 336,618 101,929 37,761	12,921 3,270 12,921 2,108 770 392	1 1.59 (1.53–1.65) 1 1.45 (1.38–1.52) 1.75 (1.63–1.88) 2.46 (2.22–2.72)
Females	384,758	3,414,689	6,916	
No injuries ≥1 injury 0 1 2	348,727 36,031 348,727 27,141 6,795	3,101,200 313,489 3,101,200 236,080 58,932	5,929 987 5,929 661 237	1 1.65 (1.54–1.77) 1 1.46 (1.35–1.59) 2.12 (1.86–2.41)
3+	2.095	18.477	89	2.56 (2.07-3.16)

^aThe proportional hazards assumption was checked by visual inspection of log-minus-log plots for the exposure variable (injuries [yes/no] and 0, 1, 2, 3+ injuries) and adjustment variables (birth cohort and sex). HRs were adjusted for sex and birth cohort and the interaction between sex and birth cohort. Robust variance estimation was applied to account for siblings.

included combined (F90.0) and inattentive (F98.8) subtypes. Based on funding available at the time, sampling of ADHD cases for the iPSYCH2012 case-cohort sample included only cases with *ICD-10* code F90.0.

Polygenic Risk Scores for ADHD

PRS were derived using both LDpred³⁷ and BOLT-LMM³⁸ software and combined in a linear combination to obtain final PRS (see Supplementary Appendix 1).³⁹ PRS-ADHD was standardized based on the mean and standard deviation in the iPSYCH subcohort, representing the distribution in the general population.

Statistical Analyses

First, hazard ratios (HRs) were estimated by Cox regression for the association between early-life injuries and ADHD, using age as the underlying time axis. Analyses were repeated for the 2 ADHD subtypes and in strata of parental education (completed high school yes/no). Individuals were followed from their fifth birthday until first ADHD diagnosis, TBI, emigration, or death, whichever came first. Absolute risks were calculated as cumulative incidences of ADHD at ages 10 and 15 years.

Second, we investigated familial coaggregation of injuries and ADHD, estimating HRs for associations between injuries in mothers, fathers, full siblings, maternal and paternal half-siblings (exposures), and ADHD in the

index child (outcome). All analyses were adjusted for sex, birth cohort (1995–1998, 1999–2002, 2003–2006, 2007–2010), and the interaction between sex and birth cohort. Analyses of parental injuries were additionally adjusted for the parent's birth cohort (<1968, 1968–1971, 1972–1977, >1977). Analyses of average number of injuries in siblings were additionally adjusted for the number of full/maternal half/paternal half-siblings (1, 2, 3+).

Third, incidence rate ratios (IRRs) were estimated by negative binomial regression with the logarithm transformed time at risk as an offset for associations between PRS-ADHD and the number of injuries before age 5. Due to the iPSYCH2012 case-cohort sampling design, including all ADHD cases and a 2% random subcohort, inverse sampling probabilities were applied as weights.⁴⁰ IRRs correspond to a relative increase in the rate of early-life injuries for an increase of 1 standard deviation in the PRS-ADHD. These analyses were adjusted for sex, age, and calendar year at first ADHD diagnosis (both continuous), genotyping wave (categorical), and the first 4 principal components (PCs) to adjust for potential remaining population stratification. The PCA method for deriving the PCs used for ancestry outlier removal and adjustment is described in detail elsewhere.³⁴ Follow-up started at birth and ended at age 5, a diagnosis of disease of the nervous system (ICD-10 codes G00–G99), death, or emigration from Denmark, whichever came first.

All analyses were repeated in males and females and applied a cluster-robust variance estimator with clusters defined as individuals having the same mother and father and for half-sibling cohorts defined as individuals having the same mother or father.

Finally, SNP heritability ($h^2_{\rm SNP}$) and genetic correlation ($r_{\rm g}$) between early-life injuries and ADHD were estimated using BOLT-REML software among the iPSYCH2012 ADHD cases and subcohort. SNPs were filtered and linkage disequilibrium (LD) pruned according to BOLT-REML suggested guidelines³⁵ (for details, see Supplementary Appendix 2). Heritability estimates were transformed to the liability scale as proposed by Lee et al,⁴¹ assuming population prevalence of 5% for ADHD and 10% for injuries.

The main analyses were conducted using Stata 15.⁴² Plots of cumulative incidences were estimated and plotted using R 3.6.1.⁴³ All estimates are accompanied by 95% confidence intervals (CIs).

Ethics

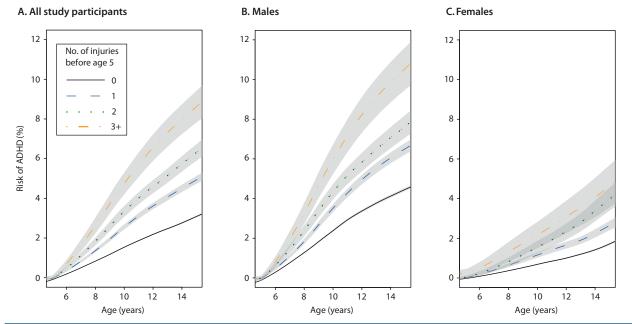
iPSYCH is approved by the Danish Data Protection Agency, the Danish Health Data Authority, the Danish Scientific Ethics Committee, and the Danish Neonatal Screening Biobank Steering Committee. 33,44,45

RESULTS

The study population consisted of 786,543 children born in Denmark between 1995 and 2010, followed for a total of 6,910,193 person-years, until a median age of 13.9 years (interquartile range: 9.9–18.0). In total, 92,691 individuals

^bAmong all individuals (with or without ADHD) with an injury before age 5, less than 1% of these had their first injury within the first year of life. Abbreviations: ADHD = attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, HR = hazard ratio.

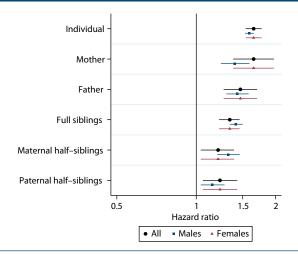




^aCumulative incidences of ADHD after age 5 with 95% confidence interval (y-axis) by age (x-axis), estimated for different exposure groups (≥ 3, 2, 1 and 0 injuries before age 5).

Abbreviation: ADHD = attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder.

Figure 2. Associations Between Injuries and ADHDa



^aIndividual and familial associations between injuries and ADHD in the index individual. The exposure was defined as at least 1 injury before age 5 for individual and siblings and at least 2 inpatient admissions due to injuries before age 20 in parents. All analyses were adjusted for sex, birth cohort, and the interaction between sex and birth cohort. Sibling exposure and analyses were additionally adjusted for number of siblings. Parental exposure analyses were additionally adjusted for parent's birth

Abbreviation: ADHD = attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder.

(11.8%) sustained an injury before age 5, and 23,107 individuals (2.9%) were diagnosed with ADHD after 5 years of age and during follow-up. In 34,452 study participants (4.4%), follow-up ended due to death (n = 423), emigration from Denmark (n = 11,704), or TBI (including concussion) after age 5 (n = 22,053).

Association Between Injuries and ADHD

Having sustained at least 1 injury before age 5 was associated with a subsequent diagnosis of ADHD (HR = 1.61; 95% CI, 1.55–1.66). Furthermore, an increasing number of injuries was associated with an increased risk of ADHD, suggesting a dose-response relationship (Table 1). Children with 3 or more injuries had a 2.5-fold increased risk of ADHD (HR = 2.48; 95% CI, 2.27-2.72) when compared to children with no injuries.

We found no significant interaction between injuries (yes/no) and sex (P = .455), and associations were similar in sex-specific analyses (Table 1).

We observed a dose-response relation with higher cumulative incidence of ADHD by increasing number of injuries before age 5 (Figure 1 and Supplementary Table 3). By 15 years of age, the estimated risk of ADHD ranged from 3.05% (95% CI, 3.00%–3.10%) in children with no injuries to 8.43% (95% CI, 7.64%-9.22%) in children with 3 or more injuries. Similar patterns were seen in both sexes (higher absolute risks in males), for ADHD subtypes (strongest associations for the combined subtype), and across strata of parental education (Supplementary Tables 4 and 5).

Familial Coaggregation of Injuries and ADHD

ADHD was associated with injuries in first-degree relatives, including mothers (HR = 1.47; 1.32–1.64), fathers (HR = 1.45; 1.33 - 1.57), and full siblings (HR = 1.39; 1.33 -1.46) (Figure 2 and Supplementary Table 6). The association was somewhat weaker in second-degree relatives, including maternal half-siblings (HR = 1.28; 1.18-1.40) and paternal half-siblings (HR = 1.18; 1.08–1.29). The number of injuries

website.

It is illegal

Table 2. Association Between PRS-ADHD and Number of Injuries Before 5 Years of Age in iPSYCH ADHD Cases and Subcohort (16,580) and in Males (n=10,430) and Females (n=6,150) Separately

			lotal no.		
Exposure	Cases,	Person-	of injuries	Rates ^a of injuries	IRR ^{b,c} for
Cohort	N	years	before age 5	per 100 person-years	injuries (95% CI)
PRS—All	16,580	81,521	3,637	4.46 (4.32-4.61)	1.06 (1.00-1.14)
PRS—Males	10,430	51,258	2,686	5.24 (5.04-5.44)	1.04 (0.96-1.13)
PRS—Females	6,150	30,264	951	3.14 (2.95-3.35)	1.09 (0.98-1.22)

^aRates are here presented unadjusted and unweighted.

Table 3. SNP-Based Heritability Estimates of ADHD and Early-Life Injuries and Genetic Correlation Calculated^a in iPSYCH ADHD Cases and Subcohort (n = 14,333)

		SNP-based	Liability scale	Genetic
	Cases,	heritability	heritability ^b	correlation
Phenotype	N (%)	h ² _{SNP} (95% CI)	h ² _{Liab} (95% CI)	r _g (95% CI)
ADHD	6,186 (43.2)	0.33 (0.28-0.39)	0.28 (0.24-0.33)	0.53 (0.21-0.85)
Any injury before age 5	2.137 (14.9)	0.06 (0.01-0.11)	0.13 (0.02-0.23)	

^aBOLT-REML estimation on an LD-pruned set of SNPs (n = 785,388).

in full siblings also increased the HR of ADHD in the index child incrementally. An average number of >2 injuries in full siblings was associated with an increased risk of ADHD (HR = 1.81; 1.54-2.14) when compared to the risk of ADHD in full siblings without injuries. Similar sex-specific trends were observed (Supplementary Table 6).

Genetics of ADHD and Injuries

In a subset of the general population with genetic data available (n=16,580), a higher PRS-ADHD was associated with a higher number of injuries before age 5 (IRR=1.06; 1.00–1.14), with similar-sized estimates for males and females (Table 2). In unrelated individuals (n=14,333), we found moderate SNP-based heritability for ADHD and low SNP-based heritability for early-life injuries, with strong evidence for genetic correlation between the two ($r_{\rm g}$ =0.53; 95% CI, 0.21–0.85) (Table 3).

DISCUSSION

In this population-based cohort study of almost 800,000 children, early-life injuries were associated with a subsequent clinical diagnosis of ADHD. Having sustained at least 1 injury before age 5 resulted in a 64% higher risk of ADHD, relative to those without injuries before age 5. The association showed a dose-response pattern, as increasing number of

injuries was associated with incremental increased risks of ADHD. Children with 3 or more injuries had a 2.5-fold increased risk of subsequently being diagnosed with ADHD after age 5, when compared with children without early-life injuries.

Decades of research provide strong evidence that ADHD is associated with a 39%–53% increased risk of injuries¹⁵ and that ADHD medication reduces this risk.^{13,15} ADHD is associated with more collisions when riding a bicycle, more risk-taking behavior, impulsive decision-making,⁴⁶ and, in adults, higher rates of serious traffic accidents.⁴⁷ The risk of fatal injuries is also increased in individuals with ADHD, and accidents are their most common cause of death.^{48,49}

Other than symptoms of inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity, little is known about what characterizes children with ADHD in their first years of life, prior to being diagnosed. Some retrospective studies have found that children attending emergency wards have higher rates of ADHD symptoms than other children.^{7–11} Here, we show for the first time using an objective measure that early-life injury is strongly associated with later ADHD risk and that increasing number of injures before age 5 may already be a marker of ADHD liability prior to diagnosis.

We also found familial coaggregation of injuries and ADHD, which suggests that the etiology of the 2 phenotypes includes shared familial risks. The associations were stronger

^bAnalyses were adjusted for sex, genotyping wave, the first 4 principal components to correct for population stratification, and birth cohort. Cluster-robust variance estimation was applied to account for clustering by siblings.

^cAdjusted and weighted IRR were estimated from a negative binomial regression analysis and weighted to represent associations in the general population.

Abbreviations: ADHD = attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, iPSYCH = The Lundbeck Foundation Initiative for Integrative Psychiatric Research, IRR = incidence rate ratio, PRS = polygenic risk score.

^bHeritability estimates were transformed to the liability scale assuming population prevalence of 5% for ADHD and 10% for injuries. Sample prevalences were higher (43% and 16%, respectively) mainly due to oversampling of ADHD cases in the iPSYCH sample.

Abbreviations: ADHD = attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder, h^2_{liab} = liability scale heritability, h^2_{SNP} = SNP-based heritability, iPSYCH = The Lundbeck Foundation Initiative for Integrative Psychiatric Research, LD = linkage disequlibrium, REML = restricted maximum likelihood, r_{q} = genetic correlation, SNP = single-nucleotide polymorphism.

for social stressors. 57-59

It is illegal to post this copy between first-degree than second-degree relatives, and in the general population, genetic liability for ADHD, as indexed by ADHD polygenic risk scores, was marginally associated with early-life injuries. However, we also found a genetic correlation of 0.53 between ADHD and early-life injuries, a higher correlation than ADHD shows with other neuropsychiatric disorders.^{24,50,51} This suggests that their underlying genetic liability is partly shared. However, the SNP-based heritability of injuries was low (6%), in keeping with findings from previous twin studies that have found little evidence for a genetic contribution to injuries.^{26,27} Other shared familial risks could be related the psychosocial environment in the family, which is associated with both injuries and ADHD (including, eg, family history of mental disorders, 52,53 parental unemployment, 54,55 and teenage parenthood^{26,56}). Finally, our observations could also be explained by gene-environment correlation whereby genetic liability to ADHD increases the risk for environmental stressors, a phenomenon that to date has only been observed

We find that the risk of injuries may be linked to individual and familial characteristics, and not merely caused by external factors, which supports a hypothesis suggested in 1919.60 Based on that, the concept of "accident proneness" was presented in 1926. 61-63 During the 1940s and 50s, several publications supported this concept, linking it with different psychiatric symptoms, including distractibility, impulsivity, aggression, impatience, opposition, restlessness, and hyperactivity, ^{64,65} and also documenting familial aggregation of accidents. 66,67 Later, the concept of "accident proneness" was criticized for placing the responsibility of sustaining an injury solely on the injured individuals themselves. ^{68,69} While our data suggest shared liabilities for injuries and ADHD, and that individuals more prone to injuries are more likely to have ADHD, this still explains very little of the variance in early-life injuries.

Major strengths of our study include the longitudinally recorded individual-level data on a population-based national sample in a country with free universal health care. Furthermore, we were able to link the individual information with information in parents and siblings and to link with genetic information on all with an ADHD diagnosis and randomly selected controls. The randomly selected cohort enables us to present valid estimates of absolute risk in the general population, something most studies cannot do. Furthermore, our similar findings among individuals with high and low educated parents suggest that the association between injuries and ADHD is only minimally biased by differences in hospital-seeking behavior due to SES. However, our study also has some important limitations. First, we did not estimate the potentially mediating or moderating effects of other mental disorders often comorbid to ADHD (eg, conduct disorder). Second, with TBI excluded, we did not hypothesize a direct causal relationship between early injuries and ADHD, and hence we decided not to adjust analyses for, eg, parental SES or mental disorders. However, the impact of home environment, parental behavior, or parent-child

chted PDF on any website interactions was not assessed, and hence we were not able to fully disentangle the genetic and non-genetic contributions to the observed association. Third, we relied on previously validated data from the national health registries on clinical diagnoses of ADHD from hospital departments, and persons diagnosed by child and adolescent psychiatrists in private practices were not included. According to Danish guidelines, inattention without hyperactivity should be coded as F98.8,⁷⁰ yet the validity of this ICD diagnosis in the Danish registers is not fully known.⁷¹ However, we expect this misclassification to be non-differential by groups of injury exposure, meaning our estimates of association might be underestimated. Fourth, while BOLT-REML seems to provide robust estimates for the genetic correlation in a setting with shared controls and case-control ascertainments, the estimated SNPbased heritabilities are likely underestimated and should be interpreted with caution.⁷² Finally, even in children with the most injuries, more than 90% were not diagnosed with ADHD. Hence, with such a low positive predictive value, our data do not support that obtaining information about early-life injuries should be recommended as part of the clinical assessment for ADHD, or that such information would improve diagnostic validity.

To conclude, our study adds important new findings to the literature on what characterizes children with ADHD, years before they are diagnosed, and the data suggest that early-life injuries may be an early manifestation of impairment and risks related to symptoms of ADHD. Furthermore, the observed association between early-life injuries and ADHD is partly due to shared familial and genetic risks.

Submitted: April 9, 2021; accepted September 7, 2021.

Published online: January 4, 2022. **Potential conflicts of interest:** None.

Funding/support: This study was funded by grants from Novo Nordisk Foundation (NNF16OC0022018), the Lundbeck Foundation (iPSYCH grant R248-2017-2003), and the Stanley Medical Research Institute and supported by CIRRAU. Dr Dalsgaard's research is further supported by grants from National Institutes of Health (R01, grant ES026993), the European Commission (Horizon 2020, grant 667302), Helsefonden (grant 19-8-0260), and the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement 847879. The Wellcome Trust provided additional funding for Drs Riglin and Thapar (204895/Z/16/Z). Data handling and analysis on the GenomeDK HPC facility were supported by National Institute of Mental Health (1U01MH109514-01 to Dr Børglum) and Center for Genomics and Personalized Medicine (grant to Dr Børglum). Dr Børglum's research was further supported by the European Community Horizon 2020 Programme (grant 667302).

Role of the sponsor: The supporting sources had no role in the design, conduct, and reporting of the study.

Supplementary material: Available at PSYCHIATRIST.COM

REFERENCES

- Sonuga-Barke EJ, Daley D, Thompson M, et al. Preschool ADHD: exploring uncertainties in diagnostic validity and utility, and treatment efficacy and safety. Expert Rev Neurother. 2003;3(4):465–476.
- Dal Santo JA, Goodman RM, Glik D, et al. Childhood unintentional injuries: factors predicting injury risk among preschoolers. *J Pediatr Psychol*. 2004;29(4):273–283.
- Bourguet CC, McArtor RE. Unintentional injuries: risk factors in preschool children. Am J Dis Child. 1989;143(5):556–559.
- Ribeiro MGC, Paula ABR, Bezerra MAR, et al. Social determinants of health associated with childhood accidents at home: an integrative review. Rev Bras Enferm. 2019;72(1):265–276.
- 5. Seidman LJ, Biederman J, Monuteaux MC, et al. Impact of gender and age

on executive functioning: do girls and boys with and without attention deficit hyperactivity disorder differ 2014

- hyperactivity disorder differ neuropsychologically in preteen and teenage years? *Dev Neuropsychol.* 2005;27(1):79–105.
- Garzon DL. Contributing factors to preschool unintentional injury. J Pediatr Nurs. 2005;20(6):441–447.
- Klein D. Some applications of delinquency theory to childhood accidents. *Pediatrics*. 1969;44(5):805–810.
- Matheny AP Jr. Injuries among toddlers: contributions from child, mother, and family. J Pediatr Psychol. 1986;11(2):163–176.
- Langley J, McGee R, Silva P, et al. Child behavior and accidents. J Pediatr Psychol. 1983;8(2):181–189.
- Speltz ML, Gonzales N, Sulzbacher S, et al.
 Assessment of injury risk in young children: a preliminary study of the Injury Behavior Checklist. J Pediatr Psychol. 1990;15(3):373–383.
- Piazza-Waggoner C, Dotson C, Adams CD, et al. Preinjury behavioral and emotional problems among pediatric burn patients. *J Burn Care Rehabil*. 2005;26(4):371–378, discussion 369–370.
- Dalsgaard S, Nielsen HS, Simonsen M.
 Consequences of ADHD medication use for children's outcomes. J Health Econ. 2014;37:137–151.
- Dalsgaard S, Leckman JF, Mortensen PB, et al. Effect of drugs on the risk of injuries in children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder: a prospective cohort study. *Lancet Psychiatry*. 2015;2(8):702–709.
- 14. Lindemann C, Langner I, Banaschewski T, et al. The risk of hospitalizations with injury diagnoses in a matched cohort of children and adolescents with and without attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder in Germany: a database study. Front Pediatr. 2017;5:220.
- Ruiz-Goikoetxea M, Cortese S, Aznarez-Sanado M, et al. Risk of unintentional injuries in children and adolescents with ADHD and the impact of ADHD medications: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Neurosci Biobehav Rev. 2018;84:63–71.
- Adeyemo BO, Biederman J, Zafonte R, et al. Mild traumatic brain injury and ADHD: a systematic review of the literature and metaanalysis. J Atten Disord. 2014;18(7):576–584.
- Chang HK, Hsu JW, Wu JC, et al. Traumatic brain injury in early childhood and risk of attentiondeficit/hyperactivity disorder and autism spectrum disorder: a nationwide longitudinal study. J Clin Psychiatry. 2018;79(6):17m11857.
- Stojanovski S, Felsky D, Viviano JD, et al. Polygenic risk and neural substrates of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder symptoms in youths with a history of mild traumatic brain injury. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2019;85(5):408–416.
- American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders. 5th Edition. American Psychiatric Publishing; 2013.
- 20. Faraone SV, Larsson H. Genetics of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. *Mol Psychiatry*. 2019;24(4):562–575.
- Stergiakouli E, Martin J, Hamshere ML, et al. Shared genetic influences between attentiondeficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) traits in children and clinical ADHD. J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2015;54(4):322–327.
- Riglin L, Collishaw S, Thapar AK, et al.
 Association of genetic risk variants with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder trajectories in the general population. JAMA Psychiatry. 2016;73(12):1285–1292.
- 23. Martin J, Hamshere ML, Stergiakouli E, et al. Genetic risk for attention-deficit/hyperactivity

- disorder contributes to neurodevelopmental traits in the general population. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2014;76(8):664–671.
- Demontis D, Walters RK, Martin J, et al; ADHD Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium (PGC); Early Lifecourse & Genetic Epidemiology (EAGLE) Consortium; 23andMe Research Team. Discovery of the first genomewide significant risk loci for attention deficit/ hyperactivity disorder. Nat Genet. 2019;51(1):63–75.
- Lyngsøe BK, Munk-Olsen T, Vestergaard CH, et al. Maternal depression and childhood injury risk: a population-based cohort study in Denmark. Brain Behav. 2021;11(3):e02029.
- Ordoñana JR, Caspi A, Moffitt TE. Unintentional injuries in a twin study of preschool children: environmental, not genetic, risk factors. J Pediatr Psychol. 2008;33(2):185–194.
- Salminen S, Vuoksimaa E, Rose RJ, et al. Age, sex, and genetic and environmental effects on unintentional injuries in young and adult twins. Twin Res Hum Genet. 2018;21(6):502–506.
- Acar E, Dursun OB, Esin IS, et al. Unintentional injuries in preschool age children: is there a correlation with parenting style and parental attention deficit and hyperactivity symptoms. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 2015;94(32):e1378.
- Pedersen CB, Gøtzsche H, Møller JØ, et al. The Danish Civil Registration System: a cohort of eight million persons. *Dan Med Bull*. 2006;53(4):441–449.
- Schmidt M, Schmidt SA, Sandegaard JL, et al. The Danish National Patient Registry: a review of content, data quality, and research potential. Clin Epidemiol. 2015;7:449–490.
- Mors O, Perto GP, Mortensen PB. The Danish Psychiatric Central Research Register. Scand J Public Health. 2011;39(suppl):54–57.
- World Health Organization. The ICD-10
 Classification of Mental and Behavioural
 Disorders: Clinical Descriptions and Diagnostic
 Guidelines. World Health Organization; 1992.
- Pedersen CB, Bybjerg-Grauholm J, Pedersen MG, et al. The iPSYCH2012 case-cohort sample: new directions for unravelling genetic and environmental architectures of severe mental disorders. Mol Psychiatry. 2018;23(1):6–14.
- Privé F, Luu K, Blum MGB, et al. Efficient toolkit implementing best practices for principal component analysis of population genetic data. Bioinformatics. 2020;36(16):4449–4457.
- Loh PR, Bhatia G, Gusev A, et al; Schizophrenia Working Group of Psychiatric Genomics Consortium. Contrasting genetic architectures of schizophrenia and other complex diseases using fast variance-components analysis. Nat Genet. 2015;47(12):1385–1392.
- Debost JC, Larsen JT, Munk-Olsen T, et al. Childhood infections and schizophrenia: the impact of parental SES and mental illness, and childhood adversities. Brain Behav Immun. 2019;81:341–347.
- Vilhjálmsson BJ, Yang J, Finucane HK, et al; Schizophrenia Working Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium, Discovery, Biology, and Risk of Inherited Variants in Breast Cancer (DRIVE) study. Modeling linkage disequilibrium increases accuracy of polygenic risk scores. Am J Hum Genet. 2015;97(4):576–592.
- Loh PR, Tucker G, Bulik-Sullivan BK, et al. Efficient Bayesian mixed-model analysis increases association power in large cohorts. Nat Genet. 2015;47(3):284–290.
- Albiñana C, Grove J, McGrath JJ, et al. Leveraging both individual-level genetic data and GWAS summary statistics increases polygenic prediction. Am J Hum Genet. 2021;108(6):1001–1011.

- 0. Borgan O, Langholz B, Samuelsen SO, et a Exposure stratified case-cohort designs. *Lifetime Data Anal*. 2000;6(1):39–58.
- Lee SH, Goddard ME, Wray NR, et al. A better coefficient of determination for genetic profile analysis. Genet Epidemiol. 2012;36(3):214–224.
- 42. Stata Statistical Software: Release 14. StataCorp; 2016.
- 43. R Development Core Team. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Programming. R Foundation for Statistical Consulting; 2010.
- Mortensen PB. Response to "Ethical concerns regarding Danish genetic research." Mol Psychiatry. 2019;24(11):1574–1575.
- Nørgaard-Pedersen B, Hougaard DM. Storage policies and use of the Danish Newborn Screening Biobank. J Inherit Metab Dis. 2007;30(4):530–536.
- Nikolas MA, Elmore AL, Franzen L, et al. Risky bicycling behavior among youth with and without attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder. J Child Psychol Psychiatry. 2016;57(2):141–148.
- Chang Z, Lichtenstein P, D'Onofrio BM, et al. Serious transport accidents in adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and the effect of medication: a population-based study. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2014;71(3):319–325.
- Dalsgaard S, Østergaard SD, Leckman JF, et al. Mortality in children, adolescents, and adults with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder: a nationwide cohort study. *Lancet*. 2015;385(9983):2190–2196.
- Sun S, Kuja-Halkola R, Faraone SV, et al. Association of psychiatric comorbidity with the risk of premature death among children and adults with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *JAMA Psychiatry*. 2019;76(11):1141–1149.
- Anttila V, Bulik-Sullivan B, Finucane HK, et al; Brainstorm Consortium. Analysis of shared heritability in common disorders of the brain. *Science*. 2018;360(6395):eaap8757.
- Cross-Disorder Group of the Psychiatric Genomics Consortium. Genomic relationships, novel loci, and pleiotropic mechanisms across eight psychiatric disorders. *Cell*. 2019;179(7):1469–1482.e11.
- Nevriana A, Pierce M, Dalman C, et al.
 Association between maternal and paternal mental illness and risk of injuries in children and adolescents: nationwide register based cohort study in Sweden. BMJ. 2020;369:m853.
- McCoy BM, Rickert ME, Class QA, et al. Mediators of the association between parental severe mental illness and offspring neurodevelopmental problems. Ann Epidemiol. 2014;24(9):629–634.e1.
- Sideri S, Marcenes W, Stansfeld SA, et al. Family environment and traumatic dental injuries in adolescents. *Dent Traumatol*. 2018;34(6):438–444.
- Keilow M, Wu C, Obel C. Cumulative social disadvantage and risk of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder: results from a nationwide cohort study. SSM Popul Health. 2020;10:100548.
- Østergaard SD, Dalsgaard S, Faraone SV, et al. Teenage parenthood and birth rates for individuals with and without attention-deficit/ hyperactivity disorder: a nationwide cohort study. J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2017;56(7):578–584.e3.
- Harold GT, Leve LD, Barrett D, et al. Biological and rearing mother influences on child ADHD symptoms: revisiting the developmental interface between nature and nurture. J Child Psychol Psychiatry. 2013;54(10):1038–1046.
- 58. Stern A, Agnew-Blais J, Danese A, et al. Associations between abuse/neglect and

Listing in the control of the contro

- prospective nationally-representative twin study. *Child Abuse Negl*. 2018;81:274–285.
- Østergaard SD, Trabjerg BB, Als TD, et al. Polygenic risk score, psychosocial environment and the risk of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Transl Psychiatry*. 2020;10(1):335.
- Greenwood M, Woods HM. The Incidence of Industrial Accidents Upon Individuals, With Special Reference to Multiple Accidents. Her Majesty's Stationery Office. Industrial Fatigue Research Board; 1919.
- 61. Farmer E, Chambers EG. A Psychological Study of Individual Differences in Accident Rates. H. M. Stationery Office; 1926.
- 62. Marbe K. Praktische Psychologie der Unfälle und Betriebsschäden. Oldenbourg; 1926.
- 63. Newbold EM. A Contribution to the Study of the Human Factor in the Causation of Accidents. H.M.S.O.; 1926.
- 64. Bakwin RM, Bakwin H. Accident proneness. *J Pediatr.* 1948;32(6):749–752.

- and accident-proneness (somato-psychic causes of such injuries). *Acta Psychiatr Neurol Scand*. 1954;29(1):28–30.
- 66. Partington MW. The importance of accidentproneness in the aetiology of head injuries in childhood. *Arch Dis Child*. 1960;35(181):215–223.
- 67. Dunbar F. *Psychosomatic Diagnosis*. Paul B. Hoeber, Inc.; 1943:172–247.
- Froggatt P, Smiley JA. The concept of accident proneness: a review. Br J Ind Med. 1964;21(1):1–12.
- McKenna FP. Accident proneness: a conceptual analysis. Accid Anal Prev. 1983;15(1):65–71.
- Sundhedsstyrrelsen [Danish Health Authority], National Klinisk Retningslinje for Udredning og Behandling af ADHD Hos Børn og Unge [National Clinical Guideline for Assessment and Treatment of ADHD in Children and Adolescents]. 2018; v3.1. December 2018.

- National-Klinisk-Retningslinje-Udredning-ogbehandling-af-ADHD-hos-boern-og-unge
- 71. Mohr-Jensen C, Vinkel Koch S, Briciet Lauritsen M, et al. The validity and reliability of the diagnosis of hyperkinetic disorders in the Danish Psychiatric Central Research Registry. Eur Psychiatry. 2016;35:16–24.
- Weissbrod O, Flint J, Rosset S. Estimating SNP-based heritability and genetic correlation in case-control studies directly and with summary statistics. Am J Hum Genet. 2018;103(1):89–99.

Editor's Note: We encourage authors to submit papers for consideration as a part of our Focus on Childhood and Adolescent Mental Health section. Please contact Karen D. Wagner, MD, PhD, at kwagner@psychiatrist.com.

See supplementary material for this article at PSYCHIATRISTCOM.



Supplementary Material

Article Title: Early-Life Injuries and the Development of Attention-Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder

Theresa Wimberley, PhD: Isabell Brikell, PhD: Emil M, Pedersen, MSc: Esben Agerbo. Author(s):

> DrMedSc; Bjarni J. Vilhjálmsson, PhD; Clara Albiñana, MSc; Florian Privé, PhD; Anita Thapar, PhD; Kate Langley, PhD; Lucy Riglin, PhD; Marianne Simonsen, PhD; Helena S.

Nielsen, PhD; Anders D. Børglum, PhD; Merete Nordentoft, DrMedSc; Preben B.

Mortensen, DrMedSc; and Søren Dalsgaard, PhD

DOI Number: 10.4088/JCP.21m14033

List of Supplementary Material for the article

4	A managed in a	Calculation of Polygenic Risk Scores for ADHD (PRS-AD	ALID)
Ι.	Appendix 1	Calculation of Polydenic Risk Scores for ADDD (PRS-AL	וטחע

- Calculation of SNP-Heritability and Genetic Correlation **Appendix 2**
- ICD-10 Codes and Frequencies of Types of Injuries Before Age Five in Boys And Girls in Table 1

the Study Population

- Table 2 Inclusion Criteria for Study Populations I-VI
- Number of ADHD Cases and Absolute Risks of ADHD by Age 10 and 15 Years. 5. Table 3

Calculated for the Entire Cohort (N=22 794) and for Males (N=15 994) and Females (N=6

800), Separately

Hazard Ratios of Different Subtypes of ADHD, Comparing Individuals With No vs. Any Table 4

Injuries and vs. Number of Injuries Before Age Five

- Association Between Injuries and ADHD Across Parental Education Level 7. Table 5
- Familial Aggregation of Injuries and ADHD, With the Association Between Parents and Table 6 Siblings (Average) Exposure to Injuries and Occurrence of ADHD in the Index Individual,

Estimated as Hazard Ratios (HR) With 95% CI

Disclaimer

This Supplementary Material has been provided by the author(s) as an enhancement to the published article. It has been approved by peer review; however, it has undergone neither editing nor formatting by in-house editorial staff. The material is presented in the manner supplied by the author.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

Appendix 1. Calculation of polygenic risk scores for ADHD (PRS-ADHD)

The polygenic risk score for ADHD (PRS-ADHD) was calculated using both internal (to iPSYCH2012) and external SNP weights (from external GWAS summary statistics). We derived externally trained PRS-ADHD using the LDpred software, specifying an infinitesimal model. SNP weights were obtained from publicly available external ADHD GWAS summary statistics (1947 trio cases and pseudo-controls, 840 case and 688 controls), selecting European ancestry discovery GWAS without the iPSYCH2012 sample included. The LDPred PRS was derived for a set of genotyped SNPs (n=166 329, filtered for minor allele frequency (MAF) > 1% and missing values < 10%) overlapping between the iPSYCH2012 sample and the external GWAS summary statistics and restricted to HapMap3 variants (v1.2).

Owing to the large number of ADHD cases in iPSYCH2012, we also derived another set of internally trained PRS-ADHD in an unrelated ($\hat{\pi}$ coefficient > 0.2 using PLINK--rel-cutoff), European ancestry subset of the iPSYCH2012 sample. The internally trained SNP weights were obtained using the BOLT-LMM software.³ We performed a mixed model prediction of ADHD (i.e. best linear unbiased prediction [BLUP]) in which genotyped SNPs in the iPSYCH sample (n = 544758, filtered for minor allele frequency > 0.01 and SNP missing rate < 0.1) were included as random effects. Prediction effect sizes from this model take into account LD between nearby SNPs to correctly weigh their contribution to the phenotypic variance (see supplementary material of Loh et al, 2015).³ To avoid overfitting, we used 10-fold cross-validation, training the model using 9/10ths of the data and testing it in the remaining tenth. The internally trained PRS was defined as the weighted sum of the training set prediction betas on the test set genotypes. The model was adjusted for genotyping wave, sex, age, and the first 10 principal components (PCs). The final PRS-ADHD was a linear combination of the internally and externally trained PRS variables, where the regression coefficients were inferred using two-fold cross validation on the test set. These PRS were standardized to the mean and standard deviation of the iPSYCH2012 control population.⁴ PRS were derived at the secured national GenomeDK high-performance computing cluster in Denmark and then imported to Statistics Denmark secure servers for linkage to other registry information. Further details on this procedure for PRS calculation can be found in a recently published paper.⁵

Appendix 2. Calculation of SNP-heritability and genetic correlation

SNP-heritability (h²_{SNP}) and genetic correlation (r_g) between early-life injuries and ADHD were estimated using BOLT-REML software⁶ among the iPSYCH2012 ADHD cases and subcohort. The sample was restricted to individuals of European ancestry based on PCA analysis.⁷ Furthermore, individuals were filtered for relatedness using PLINK command --rel-cutoff 0.05.⁶ Genotyped and imputed SNPs were filtered for MAF > 1%, SNP missing rate < 5% and info score > 0.8 according to BOLT-REML suggested guidelines⁶. SNPs were then LD-pruned in two rounds in PLINK version1.90⁸⁻¹⁰ using command --indep-pairwise (50 5 0.9), resulting in a number of 785 388 SNPs used for analysis. Finally, heritability estimates were transformed to the liability scale as proposed by Lee et al., ¹¹ assuming population prevalence of 5% for ADHD and 10% for injuries.

Table 1 ICD-10 codes and frequencies of types of injuries before age five in boys and girls in the study population

Type of injury	ICD-10 codes	Individuals with	injury before ag	e five, N (%)a
		All	Males	Females
		(n=786 543)	(n= 401 785)	(n=384 758)
Traumatic brain injury	S02.0-1, S02.3, S02.7-9, S06, S07,			
(TBI) ^{b,c}	S09.0, S09.7-9, S18,			
	T02.0, T04.0, T06.0, T90.2, T90.5,			
	T90.8-9			
Any non-TBI injury ^{d,e}	Any of the codes below	92 691 (11.8)	56 660 (14.1)	36 031 (9.4)
Severe and multiple	S28, S38, S48, S58, S68.3, S68.4,			
injuries and traumatic	S68.8, S68.9, S78, S88, S98.0, S98.3,			
amputation	S98.4, T05, T09.6, T11.6, T13.6, T14.7	10 (0.01)	5 (0.0)	5 (0.0)
Fracture	S02.2, S02.4-6, S12, S17, S22, S32,			
	S42, S47, S52, S57, S62, S67, S68.0,			
	S68.1, S68.2, S72, S77, S82, S87, S92,			
	S97, S98.1, S98.2, T02, T04, T08, T10,			
	T12, T14.2	13 479 (1.7)	8 030 (2.0)	5 449 (1.4)
Internal organs	S26, S27, S36, S37	48 (0.0)	34 (0.0)	14 (0.0)
Open wounds ^f	S01, S04, S05, S08, S11, S14-S16,			
	S18, S19, S21, S24, S25, S29, S31,			
	S34, S35, S39, S41, S44-S46, S49,			
	S51, S54-S56, S59, S61 S64-S66,			
	S69, S71, S74-S76, S79, S81, S84-			
	S86, S89, S91, S94-S96, S99, T01,			
	T06, T07, T09.1, T09.3-5, T09.8,			
	T09.9, T11.1, T11.3-5, T11.8, T11.9,			
	T13.1, T13.3-5, T13.8, T13.9, T14.1,			
	T14.4, T14.5, T14.8, T14.9	44 393 (5.6)	29 727 (7.4)	14 666 (3.8)
Dislocation, sprain and	S23, S33, S43, S53, S63, S73, S83,			
strain	S93, T03, T09.2, T11.2, T13.2, T14.3	11 239 (1.4)	5 560 (1.4)	5 679 (1.5)
Superficial injury	S00, S10, S20, S30, S40, S50, S60,			
	S70, S80, S90, T00, T09.0, T11.0,			
	13.0, T14.0	33 902 (4.3)	20 902 (5.2)	13 000 (3.4)
Burns	T20-T31	2 964 (0.4)	1 793 (0.4)	1 171 (0.3)
Foreign bodies	T15-19	7 724 (1.0)	4 190 (1.0)	3 534 (0.9)
		` /	` /	

^a Prevalence of types of injuries do not sum to the prevalence of any injury, as individuals may have been diagnosed with several types of injuries before age five.

Abbreviations: ICD-8: International classification of diseases, 8th revision, ICD-10: International Classification of Diseases, 10th revision, TBI: traumatic brain injury.

^b Individuals with TBI before age five (n=22 337, 12 136 males and 9 917 females) were not included in the final study population.

^c In parents, ICD-8 codes N800-804, 850-854 were additionally used to identify TBI.

^d To include only unintentional injuries, any hospital contacts due to self-harm were excluded (ICD-10 code X60-X84 or reason for contact code 4). In parents, ICD-8 codes E950-959 were additionally used to identify self-harm.

^e In parents, ICD-8 codes N805-849, 855-859 were additionally used to identify non-TBI injuries.

f Other and unspecified injuries are included in the category 'open wounds'.

Table 2 Inclusion criteria for study populations I-VI

Inclusion criteria	Excluded, N(%)	Included, N
Study population I: General population		
All born Jan 1, 1995 - Dec 31, 2010		1 191 976
Born in Denmark	144 346 (12.1)	1 047 630
Alive at age five	3 931 (0.4)	1 043 688
Not emigrated at age five	31 530 (3.0)	1 012 169
No diagnosis of ADHD before age five	1 948 (0.2)	1 010 221
No prescriptions of ADHD medication before age five	35 (0.0)	1 010 186
No diagnosis of disease of the nervous system (ICD-10: G00-G99)	15 812 (1.6)	994 374
before age five		
Mother born in Denmark	132 229 (13.3)	862 145
Farther born in Denmark	53 549 (6.2)	808 596
No TBI before age five	22 053 (2.7)	786 543
Study population II: Full siblings		
At least one full sibling and not included in the adoption register		490 472
Study population III: Maternal half siblings		
At least one maternal half sibling and not included in the adoption		
register		57 689
Study population IV: Paternal half siblings		
At least one paternal half sibling and not included in the adoption		
register		54 602
Study population V a: iPSYCH data for PRS analyses		
ADHD cases and subcohort, not mutually exclusive		48 339
Genetic information, including PRS-ADHD	5 300 (11.0)	43 039
All born May 1, 1995 - Dec 31, 2005	21 904 (50.9)	21 135
Mother born in DK	2 285 (10.8)	18 850
Father born in DK	1 030 (5.5)	17 820
No TBI before age five	545 (3.1)	17 107
European ancestry	527 (3.1)	16 580
Study population VI: iPSYCH data for genetic correlations		
Similar inclusion criteria as for study population V		16 580
Unrelated individuals identified by a relatedness threshold of 0.05		
as recommended for the BOLT-REML procedure. ⁶	2 247 (13.6)	14 333

Abbreviations: ADHD: attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, ICD-10: International Classification of Diseases, 10th revision, iPSYCH: The Lundbeck Foundation Initiative for Integrative Psychiatric Research, PRS: Polygenic risk score, REML: Restricted maximum likelihood, TBI: traumatic brain injury.

Table 3 Number of ADHD cases and absolute risks of ADHD by age 10 and 15 years, calculated for the entire cohort (n=22794) and for males (n=15994) and females (n=6800), separately

	Number of incident Al	OHD cases	Risk of AD	OHD (%)
Number of injuries	By age 10 years	By age 15 years	By age 10 years	By age 15 years
All	11 818	22 264	1.72 (1.69-1.75)	3.33 (3.28-3.37)
0	9 475	18 112	1.56 (1.53-1.59)	3.05 (3.00-3.10)
1	1 507	2 698	2.57 (2.45-2.70)	4.87 (4.68-5.07)
2	557	986	3.36 (3.09-3.64)	6.31 (5.89-6.73)
3+	279	468	4.83 (4.27-5.38)	8.43 (7.64-9.22)
Males	9 246	15 833	2.63 (2.58-2.69)	4.79 (4.71-4.87)
0	7 320	12 620	2.43 (2.37-2.48)	4.43 (4.35-4.51)
1	1 227	2 072	3.53 (3.33-3.72)	6.46 (6.17-6.75)
2	462	759	4.33 (3.94-4.72)	7.53 (6.97-8.09)
3+	237	382	6.04 (5.29-6.79)	10.35 (9.30-11.40)
Females	2 572	6 431	0.76 (0.73-0.79)	1.81 (1.75-1.86)
0	2 155	5 492	0.71 (0.68-0.74)	1.69 (1.64-1.74)
1	280	626	1.18 (1.04-1.32)	2.56 (2.33-2.80)
2	95	227	1.62 (1.29-1.94)	4.11 (3.51-4.70)
3+	42	86	2.25 (1.58-2.93)	4.40 (3.36-5.45)

Abbreviations: ADHD: attention deficit hyperactivity disorder.

Table 4 Hazard ratios of different subtypes of ADHD, comparing individuals with no vs. any injuries and vs. number of injuries before age five

ADHD subtypes	All			Males		Females	
	ADHD cases, N	HR ^a (95% CI)	ADHD cases, N	HR ^a (95% CI)	ADHD cases, N	HR ^a (95% CI)	
Combined subtype (F90.0)	15688		11407		4281		
No injuries	12718	1	9055	1	3663	1	
>=1 injury	2970	1.64 (1.57-1.71)	2352	1.63 (1.56-1.70)	618	1.67 (1.53-1.82)	
Inattentive subtype (F98.8)	4521		2719		1802		
No injuries	3800	1	2238	1	1562	1	
>=1 injury	721	1.40 (1.29-1.52)	481	1.34 (1.22-1.48)	240	1.51 (1.32-1.73)	

Abbreviations: ADHD: attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, HR: Hazard ratio.

Table 5 Association between injuries and ADHD across parental education level

Parental education level ^a	All			Males		Females	
	ADHD cases, N	HR ^a (95% CI)	ADHD cases, N	HR ^a (95% CI)	ADHD cases, N	HR ^a (95% CI)	
Maternal low (n=145 728)	8 513		5 832		2 681		
No injuries	6 839	1	4 564	1	2 275		
>=1 injury	1 674	1.48 (1.41-1.57)	1 268	1.48 (1.39-1.58)	406	1.49 (1.34-1.66)	
Maternal higher (n=639 172)	14 474		10 277		4 197		
No injuries	11 917	1	8 295	1	3 622		
>=1 injury	2 557	1.59 (1.52-1.66)	1 982	1.57 (1.49-1.64)	575	1.65 (1.51-1.80	
Paternal low (n=154 330)	8 461		5 822		2 639		
No injuries	6 822	1	4 586	1	2 242		
>=1 injury	1 639	1.54 (1.46-1.63)	1 242	1.53 (1.44-1.63)	397	1.57 (1.41-1.75)	
Paternal higher (n=627 888)	14 286		10 132		4 154		
No injuries	11 738	1	8 155	1	3 583		
>=1 injury	2 548	1.59 (1.52-1.66)	1 977	1.57 (1.50-1.65)	571	1.63 (1.49-1.78)	

^a Individuals with missing information on maternal (n=1 643, 0.2%) or paternal (n=4 325, 0.6%) education level were not included in the respective analysis.

Abbreviations: ADHD: attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, HR: Hazard ratio.

Table 6 Familial aggregation of injuries and ADHD, with the association between parents and siblings (average) exposure to injuries and occurrence of ADHD in the index individual, estimated as hazard ratios (HR) with 95% CI

uzuru ruuos (1117) wun 35/6 C1						
All			Males		Females	
Injury exposures	ADHD cases, N	HR ^a (95% CI)	ADHD cases, N	HR ^a (95% CI)	ADHD cases, N	HR ^a (95% CI)
Within individual						
(index child)	23 107		16 191		6916	
No injuries	18 850	1	12 921	1	5929	1
>=1 injury	4 257	1.61 (1.55-1.66)	3 270	1.59 (1.53-1.65)	987	1.65 (1.54-1.77)
Mothers	23107	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	16191		6916	
<2 injuries	22706	1	15922	1	6784	1
2+ injuries	401	1.47 (1.32-1.64)	269	1.40 (1.24-1.59)	132	1.65 (1.38-1.97)
Fathers	23107	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	16191	,	6916	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
<2 injuries	22467	1	15747	1	6720	1
2+ injuries	640	1.45 (1.33-1.57)	444	1.43 (1.30-1.58)	196	1.47 (1.27-1.70)

Full siblings/	12453		8926		3527	
No injuries	10209	1	7291	1	2918	1
>=1 injury	2244	1.39 (1.33-1.46)	1635	1.42 (1.34-1.5)	609	1.33 (1.22-1.46)
0	10209	1	7291	1	2918	1
]0-1]	1691	1.33 (1.27-1.41)	1213	1.33 (1.25-1.42)	478	1.34 (1.22-1.48)
]1-2]	411	1.54 (1.39-1.70)	321	1.71 (1.52-1.91)	90	1.14 (0.93-1.41)
>2	142	1.81 (1.54-2.14)	101	1.80 (1.48-2.19)	41	1.85 (1.36-2.52)
Maternal half						
siblings	3486		2366		1120	
No injuries	2633	1	1779	1	854	1
>=1 injury	853	1.28 (1.18-1.4)	587	1.32 (1.20-1.46)	266	1.21 (1.04-1.39)
Paternal half						
siblings	3041		2102		939	
No injuries	2321	1	1616	1	705	1
>=1 injury	720	1.18 (1.08-1.29)	486	1.15 (1.04-1.28)	234	1.23 (1.06-1.43)

^a Estimates were adjusted for sex and birth year of the child, as well as the interaction between sex and birth year. Estimates of parental injury exposures were additionally adjusted for the parent's birth year. Estimates of sibling injuries were additionally adjusted for the number of siblings (full, maternal – and paternal half siblings, respectively).

Abbreviations: ADHD: attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, HR: Hazard ratio.

References

- 1. Vilhjalmsson BJ, Yang J, Finucane HK, et al. Modeling Linkage Disequilibrium Increases Accuracy of Polygenic Risk Scores. Am J Hum Genet 2015 Oct 1;97(4):576-592.
- 2. Cross-Disorder Group of the Psychiatric Genomics C, Lee SH, Ripke S, et al. Genetic relationship between five psychiatric disorders estimated from genome-wide SNPs. Nat Genet 2013 Sep;45(9):984-994.
- 3. Loh PR, Tucker G, Bulik-Sullivan BK, et al. Efficient Bayesian mixed-model analysis increases association power in large cohorts. Nat Genet 2015 Mar;47(3):284-290.
- 4. Pedersen CB, Bybjerg-Grauholm J, Pedersen MG, et al. The iPSYCH2012 case-cohort sample: new directions for unravelling genetic and environmental architectures of severe mental disorders. Mol Psychiatry 2018 Jan;23(1):6-14.
- 5. Albinana C, Grove J, McGrath JJ, et al. Leveraging both individual-level genetic data and GWAS summary statistics increases polygenic prediction. Am J Hum Genet 2021 Jun 3;108(6):1001-1011.
- 6. Loh PR, Bhatia G, Gusev A, et al. Contrasting genetic architectures of schizophrenia and other complex diseases using fast variance-components analysis. Nat Genet 2015 Dec;47(12):1385-1392.
- 7. Prive F, Luu K, Blum MGB, McGrath JJ, Vilhjalmsson BJ. Efficient toolkit implementing best practices for principal component analysis of population genetic data. Bioinformatics 2020 Aug 15;36(16):4449-4457.
- 8. Chang CC, Chow CC, Tellier LC, Vattikuti S, Purcell SM, Lee JJ. Second-generation PLINK: rising to the challenge of larger and richer datasets. GigaScience 2015;4:7.
- 9. Purcell S, Neale B, Todd-Brown K, et al. PLINK: a tool set for whole-genome association and population-based linkage analyses. American Journal of Human Genetics 2007;81(0002-9297; 0002-9297; 3):559-575.
- 10. Shaun Purcell CC. Plink v1.90b3v 64-bit. v1.90b3v 64-bit ed; 2015.
- 11. Lee SH, Goddard ME, Wray NR, Visscher PM. A better coefficient of determination for genetic profile analysis. Genet Epidemiol 2012 Apr;36(3):214-224.