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1	Polycystic ovary syndrome is associated with adverse mental health and
2	neurodevelopmental outcomes
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- 32 Abstract
- 33

34 Context

Polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) is characterized by hyperandrogenism and subfertility but
 the effects on mental health and child neurodevelopment are unclear.

37

38 **Objectives**

To determine if (i) there is an association between PCOS and psychiatric outcomes, and (ii)
whether rates of autism spectrum disorder (ASD) and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder
(ADHD) are higher in children of mothers with PCOS.

42

43 Design

44 Data were extracted from the Clinical Practice Research Datalink. Patients with PCOS were 45 matched to two control sets (1:1) by age, BMI and primary care practice. Control set 2 was 46 additionally matched on prior mental health status. Primary outcomes were the incidence of 47 depression, anxiety and bipolar disorder. Secondary outcomes were the prevalence of ADHD 48 or ASD in the children.

49

50 **Results**

51 16,986 eligible patients were identified; 16,938 and 16,355 were matched to control sets 1 and 52 2 respectively. Compared to control set 1, baseline prevalence was 23.1% versus 19.3% for 53 depression, 11.5% versus 9.3% for anxiety and 3.2% versus 1.5% for bipolar disorder 54 (p<0.001). The hazard ratio for time to each endpoint was 1.26 (95% CI 1.19-1.32), 1.20 (1.11-55 1.29) and 1.21 (1.03-1.42) for set 1, and 1.38 (1.30-1.45), 1.39 (1.29-1.51) and 1.44 (1.21-1.71) 56 for set 2. The odds ratios for ASD and ADHD in children were 1.54 (1.12-2.11) and 1.64 (1.16-

- 57 2.33) for set 1, and 1.76 (1.27-2.46) and 1.34 (0.96-1.89) for set 2.
- 58

59 Conclusions

- 60 PCOS is associated with psychiatric morbidity and increased risk of ADHD and ASD in their
- 61 children. Screening for mental health disorders should be considered during assessment.

Précis

63	Analysis of 17,000 patients with PCOS and controls found an increased incidence of
64	psychiatric morbidity in women with PCOS, and increased risk of autism spectrum disorder
65	and ADHD in their children.
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96 Introduction

97 Polycystic Ovary Syndrome is the commonest endocrine condition affecting young women,
98 and is characterized by hyperandrogenism, menstrual disturbance and subfertility. In addition
99 to its well-recognized reproductive sequelae (1), PCOS is now established as a metabolic
100 disorder underpinned by insulin resistance and leading to an increased risk of type 2 diabetes
101 (2).

102

103 The cutaneous manifestations of hyperandrogenism, including hirsutism, acne and scalp hair 104 loss, are emotionally distressing (3, 4), and could contribute to an increased prevalence of depression and anxiety in this population (5-8). Comorbid mental health disorders have also 105 106 been shown to contribute to impaired quality of life in PCOS (9). However, it is difficult to 107 establish how many of these outcomes are attributable to PCOS per se, and how many to 108 obesity, which is common in this patient group and itself associated with adverse mental health 109 outcomes, including depression (10) and anxiety (11). This risk of depression may be 110 particularly increased in patients with metabolically unhealthy obesity, which is characterized 111 by insulin resistance and abdominal adiposity (12), compared to metabolically healthy weight-112 matched controls (13, 14). Furthermore, in community-based studies, the association between 113 obesity and depression appears stronger for women compared to men (15). This association may be bi-directional: in longitudinal studies obesity increases the risk of a subsequent 114 115 diagnosis of depressive disorder, whilst depression at baseline in turn increases the odds for 116 developing obesity (16). This latter risk appears to be particularly high for adolescent females 117 (16).

118

119 Whilst previous studies have focused on the risk of depressive disorder and anxiety in patients 120 with PCOS, hyperandrogenism may also influence the risk of other mental health disorders 121 including schizophrenia (17). However, a recent population-based cohort study failed to 122 demonstrate an increased risk of developing schizophrenia (or bipolar disorder) in women with 123 PCOS, although an increased risk of depressive disorder, anxiety disorder and sleep disorder 124 was confirmed (18). Other studies have shown that the risk of eating disorder, notably binge-125 eating disorder, may be increased in women with PCOS (19, 20). Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) has also been shown to associate with hyperandrogenism (21) 126 127 and obesity in adults (22), albeit that the latter effect size is moderate,

129 More recently, these studies have been extended to examine the influence of intra-uterine 130 androgen exposure on neurodevelopmental outcomes in the children of mothers with PCOS. 131 Brain development is influenced significantly by exposure to androgens during early gestation. 132 Female rhesus monkeys exposed *in utero* to androgens show increased male-type behavior (23) 133 whilst both attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and autism spectrum disorder is 134 more likely to be diagnosed in males than females (24, 25). These observations suggest that 135 ADHD and ASD may be influenced by prenatal androgen exposure. One small case-control 136 study has suggested that women with PCOS may have higher scores on ADHD symptoms on 137 self-report scales (26) whilst we have recently shown that white matter microstructure is altered 138 in young women with PCOS (27). Most recently, Kosidou et al, in a matched case-control 139 study, found that maternal PCOS increased the odds of ASD in the children by 59%, which 140 was further exacerbated by concomitant obesity (28). These studies require confirmation but 141 suggest that PCOS may represent a novel risk-state for later life neurodevelopmental disorders. 142

143 Although these observations suggest that PCOS may be associated with several adverse mental 144 health outcomes, many studies are limited by a failure to match for obesity (a potential major 145 confounder), small sample sizes, cross-sectional study designs and assessment of psychiatric 146 morbidity using rating scales, rather than formal diagnosis by a psychiatrist or other clinician. 147 In light of these uncertainties, we sought to establish the relative risks of major mental health 148 outcomes (depressive disorder, anxiety, bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, eating disorder, 149 ADHD and ASD) for patients with PCOS, and neurodevelopmental disorders (ASD and 150 ADHD) in children born to mothers with PCOS.

152 Materials and Methods

153 The study employed a retrospective cohort design using data from the Clinical Practice 154 Research Datalink (CPRD), a longitudinal, anonymized research database collected from 674 155 primary care practices in the United Kingdom. The CPRD contains records for over 11 million 156 patients and is representative of the UK population in terms of age and sex (29). Approximately 157 60% of practices participate in a linkage scheme, by which their patient records are linked to 158 other data sources, including the Hospital Episode Statistics (HES) dataset, which provides 159 data on all inpatient and outpatient contacts occurring within National Health Service hospitals 160 in England, and the Office for National Statistics (ONS) mortality dataset. Diagnostic 161 information in the CPRD primary-care dataset is recorded using the Read code classification, 162 a UK primary-care practice standard. HES inpatient data are recorded using the ICD-10 163 classification.

164

165 Patient selection and matching of controls

The study was conducted using data from CPRD's primary-care (GOLD) and linked HES data sets. The study population were those patients flagged by CPRD as being of an acceptable research quality. Patients with a diagnosis of PCOS recorded in the primary care dataset using the Read code classification (C164.00, C164.12, C165.00) from 2000 to 2014 were selected. The earliest diagnosis date was selected as the index date. A minimum "wash-in" period of 6 months from the patient's practice registration date to index date was used to maximize the likelihood that the case represented an incident case.

173

174 Patients identified with PCOS were matched at a ratio of 1:1 to two sets of non-PCOS controls. 175 This was to allow for the baseline prevalence of the selected outcomes for patients with PCOS 176 to be calculated relative to non-PCOS controls using matching criteria 1. Matching criteria 2 177 allowed for patients to be matched on mental health history to identify the incidence of outcomes following PCOS diagnosis. For control set 1, cases with PCOS were matched to 178 179 controls with no history of PCOS; the controls took the index date of the case. All controls 180 were required to have at least a 6-month wash-in period from registration at the practice to the case index date. Controls were matched by age (± 2 years), BMI category (<25 kg/m², 25-30 181 kg/m^2 , >30 kg/m²) and primary care practice. The same matching criteria were applied to 182 183 control set 2, who were additionally matched for a history of prior mental health disorder (depression, anxiety, bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, eating disorder, autism, ADHD). 184 185 Controls could appear in both sets. Mental health disorders were defined by the Read code classification or 10th revision of the International Statistical Classification of Diseases and
Related Health Problems (ICD-10) classification (Supplementary appendix 1).

188

189 Endpoints

Primary outcomes were the incidence of depressive disorder, anxiety, bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, eating disorder, ADHD and autism spectrum disorder in cases and controls. Secondary outcomes were the prevalence of ADHD or autism spectrum disorder in the children of mothers with PCOS. Children were identified via the mother-baby link generated within CPRD which links mothers with their children. To maximize patient numbers, births both before and after index date were included in this study.

196

197 Data analysis

198 Baseline characteristics between cases and controls were compared using univariate statistics (t-test for continuous variables and χ^2 for categorical variables). Crude rates of progression to 199 200 each outcome were presented and time to each endpoint was analyzed using Cox proportional 201 hazard models (CPHM). The Cox models included the following covariates (all were available 202 and tested for inclusion in each model): age, BMI, smoking status, baseline morbidity 203 represented by the Charlson index (30), total number of contacts with the general practitioner 204 in the year before index date that is regarded as a proxy for general morbidity, and deprivation 205 based on quintiles of Index of Multiple Deprivation (IMD). The IMD is an area-based measure 206 of social and material deprivation based upon various criteria including income and education. 207 Covariates were entered into each model if they were significant in that model. Threshold 208 statistical significance was $p \le 0.05$, and 95% confidence intervals (CI) were given for hazard 209 ratios (HR).

Multivariate logistic regression was used to examine the association of PCOS status with riskof autism spectrum disorder and ADHD in the children.

212

A sensitivity analysis exploring the association of bipolar disorder with PCOS was undertaken,
 excluding cases who had been treated with valproate therapy prior to index date.

215

Studies using CPRD are covered by ethics approval granted by Trent Multicentre Research
Ethics Committee (Reference 05/MRE04/87). CPRD Independent Scientific Advisory
Committee approval was granted for this study (ISAC 16-249).

- 220 Results
- 221

89,732 patients with PCOS were initially identified. After application of the
inclusion/exclusion criteria, 16,986 patients remained eligible for matching with control
subjects (figure 1). 16,938 (99.7%) and 16,355 (96.3%) patients could be matched with controls
for control sets 1 and 2 respectively.

226

227 Baseline characteristics

228 The baseline characteristics of patients with PCOS and controls are shown in tables 1 and 2 229 respectively for control sets 1 and 2. For control set 1, median follow-up was 3.87 years 230 (interquartile range (IOR) 1.80-7.25) for cases and 2.81 years (IOR 1.20-5.80) for controls. For 231 control set 2, median follow-up was 3.88 years (IQR 1.81-7.26) for cases and 3.07 years (IQR 232 1.32-6.70) for controls. In both control sets, there were significant differences between cases 233 and controls. Patients with PCOS had increased primary care contacts in the year prior to index 234 date (median 6.0 contacts versus 4.0 for both control sets), and an increased proportion of 235 patients classified with extreme obesity (6.7% vs 3.9% in control set 1 and 6.3% vs 3.8% in 236 control set 2). In addition, there were significant differences in smoking status, alcohol history 237 and systolic and diastolic blood pressure.

238

239 Prevalence of mental health disorders

In control set 1, 3,912 (23.1%) patients with PCOS had previously been diagnosed with

depression compared to 3,272 (19.32%) of controls (p<0.00001) (Supplementary appendix

242 2). A prior diagnosis of anxiety was also higher in patients with PCOS (n=1,956, 11.55%)

compared to controls (n=1,579, 9.32%) (p<0.00001). There was also a significant increase in

- the recorded diagnosis of bipolar disorder (PCOS 535 (3.16%) vs 384 (1.45%) controls,
- 245 p<0.00001). Prior diagnosis of eating disorder for patients with PCOS was higher (n=262,

1.55%) than controls (n=175, 1.03%) (p=0.00003). In the sensitivity analysis excluding pairs

of cases and controls where either had been treated with valproate therapy prior to index date,

the rate of bipolar disorder remained significantly greater for patients with PCOS (526

249 (3.14%) versus 375 (1.45%); p <0.00001).

250

There were no significant differences in the prevalence of schizophrenia, autism spectrum disorder or ADHD between cases and controls (Supplementary appendix 2).

254 Incidence of mental health disorders

- For control set 1 the rate of depression following index date was 42.62 per 1,000 patient years (pky) for patients with PCOS compared with 34.46 pky for controls. The respective figures for anxiety, bipolar disorder and eating disorder were 21.99 pky versus 17.61 pky, 4.83 pky versus 3.64 pky, and 7.57 pky versus 4.36 pky (Table 3). For control set 2 the rates were 41.66 pky versus 26.66 pky for depression, 21.33 pky versus 12.64 pky for anxiety, 4.42 pky versus 2.48 pky for bipolar disorder, and 7.40 pky versus 3.95 pky for eating diosorder.
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263 Hazard ratios for mental health disorders

264 Time to event for depression and anxiety for both control sets are shown in the Kaplan-Meier 265 curves in figure 2. After adjusting for demographic and morbidity indicators in the Cox 266 proportional hazards model, the hazard ratios for patients with PCOS compared to controls in 267 control set 1 were 1.26 (95% CI 1.19-1.32) for depression, 1.20 (95% CI 1.11-1.29) for anxiety, 268 1.21 (95% CI 1.03 – 1.42) for bipolar disorder and 1.37 (95% CI 1.05-1.81) for eating disorder. 269 For control set 2 the hazard ratios were 1.38 (95% CI 1.30-1.45) for depression, 1.39 (95% CI 1.29-1.51) for anxiety and 1.54 (95% CI 1.16-2.05) for eating disorder. Due to model violations 270 271 it was not possible to calculate the hazard ratio for bipolar disorder (Table 3).

272

In the sensitivity analysis excluding cases who had been treated with valproate therapy prior to index date the HR for cases to controls for bipolar disorder was 1.21 (95% CI 1.03-1.42) for control set 1 and 1.45 (95% CI 1.21-1.73) for control set 2.

276

277 ADHD and Autism Spectrum Disorder in children of patients with PCOS

In control set 1 there were 8,962 children born to patients with PCOS compared to 8,885 born to the controls. The respective rate of ADHD was 4.81 pky versus 3.32 pky with an odds ratio of 1.64 (95% CI 1.16-2.33). The rate of ASD was 5.82 pky versus 3.92 pky; odds ratio 1.54 (95% CI 1.12-2.11). In control set 2, there were 8,695 births to women with PCOS and 8,973 to controls. The rate of ADHD was 6.00 pky versus 3.54 pky; odds ratio 1.75 (1.27 – 2.46) and the rate of ASD was 4.44 pky versus 3.90 pky; odds ratio 1.34 (95% CI 0.96-1.89) (Table 4).

286 Discussion

287 In this large retrospective database analysis we have reported a significantly increased 288 prevalence of depression, anxiety, bipolar disorder and eating disorder at the time of diagnosis 289 with PCOS compared to matched controls. There was no difference in rates of clinically 290 recorded ASD, ADHD or schizophrenia, though the background rate of these conditions 291 resulted in the study being under-powered for these conditions. The incidence of these 292 conditions following index date was also increased for patients with PCOS. In addition, we 293 have reported increased rates of ASD and ADHD in the children of women with PCOS 294 compared with controls.

295

296 Our findings of an increased prevalence of depression and anxiety in women with PCOS are 297 consistent with a number of cross-sectional studies using screening tools such as the Beck 298 Depression/Anxiety Inventory or the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS). This 299 risk is maintained even when only moderate-to-severe symptoms are considered and when the 300 diagnosis is made by a psychiatrist (31, 32). We also observed an increased incidence of 301 depression and anxiety when we matched patients and controls for a prior history of mental 302 health disorder. Similarly increased risks of developing depression and anxiety with time have 303 been found in Taiwanese (17) and Australian (33) patients with PCOS.

304

305 A number of potential mechanisms may be in operation. Obesity, which is itself associated with depression and anxiety (9, 10), is a common co-morbidity in women with PCOS and could 306 307 explain some of this risk. However, in a systematic review and meta-analysis of cross-sectional 308 studies (32), the increased odds of depressive and anxiety symptoms persisted even when 309 subjects with PCOS were matched on BMI with controls, indicating that factors other than 310 obesity must be contributing. Hyperandrogenism is a hallmark of PCOS and may lead to the 311 emotionally distressing symptoms of hirsutism and acne. High patient-rated Ferriman-Gallwey 312 scores, as a measure of hirsutism, have been associated with higher HADS depression and 313 anxiety scores in women presenting to dermatology clinics for hair removal (34). Ferriman-Gallwey scores were also increased in PCOS subjects with anxiety and depression symptoms, 314 315 and free testosterone levels were higher in women with PCOS and anxiety compared to those 316 with no anxiety (32). However, the relationship between androgen levels and affective 317 symptoms may not be so clear-cut since others have shown an association of *lower* testosterone 318 and androgen metabolite concentrations with worse self-reported depression symptoms in 319 women with PCOS (35). Increased changes in testosterone concentrations across the

320 perimenopause have also been associated with depression (36, 37). Fertility may be another 321 major concern for women with PCOS, although depression and anxiety scores remain higher 322 than controls in studies where this has been accounted for (32, 38). Of interest, insulin 323 resistance has also been proposed as a potential mechanism by which depression and anxiety 324 might be increased in PCOS. Insulin resistance, a characteristic of both lean and overweight 325 patients with PCOS, shows a bidirectional relationship with depression in the general 326 population (39) whilst in a recent study of PCOS subjects, insulin resistance was associated 327 with depression risk independently of age, BMI, ethnicity and exercise (40).

328

329 In contrast to depression and anxiety, only a few studies have examined the risk of other 330 psychiatric disorders in women with PCOS. However, two population-based studies have 331 shown that the risk of mental health disorders in PCOS may be broader than previously 332 recognized, with increased odds of bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, personality disorders, 333 autism spectrum disorder, bulimia and tics, in addition to depression and anxiety (17, 41). 334 Whilst we were underpowered to show an effect of PCOS on autism spectrum disorder, ADHD 335 and schizophrenia, we did confirm an increased prevalence and incidence of bipolar disorder 336 compared to matched controls. Valproate therapy could, at least in part, explain this association 337 since symptoms compatible with PCOS have been reported in women treated for bipolar 338 disorder with valproate (42). However, other studies have shown that symptoms pre-date 339 treatment (43). Furthermore, in keeping with another registry study (41) we found that this 340 association, although slightly attenuated, persisted when excluding subjects treated with 341 valproate before diagnosis. The prevalence and incidence of eating disorder was also higher in 342 patients with PCOS. This is in keeping with other studies (19, 20), which have shown an 343 association of binge-eating with menstrual dysfunction (44), and a higher rate of eating 344 disorders in women with PCOS especially in the presence of concurrent anxiety (20).

345

346 Since the intra-uterine environment is known to be important in regulating child 347 neurodevelopment, we were also keen to examine the effect of maternal PCOS status (and 348 potential hyperandrogenism) on the risk of neurodevelopmental disorders in their children. Our 349 linkage analysis found an increased risk of a recorded diagnosis of ASD and ADHD in children 350 born to mothers with PCOS. This is in agreement with the observations of Kosidou et al (25, 351 45), who reported respectively increased risks of 59% and 42%, of a similar magnitude to our 352 data. They have recently extended their observations in relation to ASD to report an increased 353 risk in mothers with a diagnosis of hirsutism (46). These data support the view that increased 354 exposure to androgens *in utero* might adversely influence brain development. Indeed, intra-355 amniotic $\Delta 4$ sex-steroid levels, including testosterone and androstenedione, were found to be 356 higher in mothers of children who subsequently developed ASD than those who did not (47). 357 PCOS might expose the developing fetus to excess androgens since women with PCOS show 358 increased circulating androgen levels during gestation and have greater placental androgenic 359 capacity (48-50). Prenatal androgen exposure might increase ASD and ADHD risk through 360 effects on dendritic morphology, neuronal density, abnormal synapse function and morphology 361 (51, 52). In this regard, our recent findings of altered white matter microstructure in women 362 with PCOS, notably in androgen-sensitive areas such as the corpus callosum (27), are 363 intriguing and merit further investigation. Maternal androgen excess might also predispose to 364 anxiety in the children of mothers with PCOS: in a rodent model, prenatal androgen exposure 365 resulted in increased anxiety-like behavior in offspring, mediated via androgen receptor 366 activation in the amygdala and accompanied by changes in serotonergic and GABAergic genes 367 in the amygdala and hippocampus (53).

368

369 Whilst environmental influences such as androgen exposure may go some way to explaining 370 the effects of PCOS on mental health risk, other explanations for these findings also merit 371 consideration. In a nationwide Swedish registry study, Cesta et al found a higher risk for a 372 range of psychiatric disorders not only in PCOS subjects but also in their siblings (41). 373 Endocrine disturbances could account for these findings since nearly 50% of sisters of women 374 with PCOS are hyperandrogenic (54) whilst their brothers also have alterations in gonadotropin 375 and steroidogenic hormone secretion (55). Alternatively, shared familial factors between 376 PCOS and psychiatric disorders may exist, including a common genetic predisposition as well 377 as shared psychosocial factors in childhood.

378

379 Our study has a number of strengths, especially the large, population-based sample and 380 adjustment for a number of potential confounders. However, our study also has limitations. As 381 with all database studies, there is the possibility of confounding and bias that should be 382 considered when interpreting these results. Patients with PCOS had significantly increased 383 primary care contacts in the 12 months prior to baseline (6 versus 4 in both control sets). This may be due to consultations relating to symptoms and investigations relevant to the PCOS 384 385 diagnosis, but they may also relate to the prevalence of other conditions which may be 386 associated with other health-related morbidities.

388 Observation bias may also be a factor in these results, as patients with increased contacts with 389 health professionals necessitated by the presence of a condition such as PCOS have increased 390 chance of other conditions such as depression and anxiety being diagnosed and recorded within 391 the dataset. We deliberately used a broad range of codes to determine depression and anxiety 392 as there is evidence that over the study time period there has been a shift in primary care such 393 that the recording of clinical diagnoses of depression has reduced whilst the recording of 394 depressive symptoms has increased. Overall, however, the combined rate for the incidence of 395 diagnoses and symptoms has remained relatively stable (56). It is possible, however, that some 396 symptom terms such as 'Feeling depressed' may be less indicative of clinically relevant 397 depression than diagnosis terms such as 'Chronic depression'. Whilst there may be some 398 ambiguity surrounding depression and anxiety this is less likely for bipolar disorder which was 399 increased in the population with PCOS compared with controls.

400

There was significant missing data in this study. Body mass index was not available for over 50% of cases although obesity is known to be associated with depression and anxiety (9, 10) and also with PCOS. To compensate for this we modelled BMI as a categorical variable with missing included as a category, but it should be considered that different levels of BMI within the 'missing' category could partially explain some of the observed results in this study.

406

In conclusion, our study confirms that women with PCOS are at increased risk of being diagnosed with depression, anxiety, bipolar disorder and eating disorder, and that their children are at increased risk of a diagnosis of autism spectrum disorder and ADHD. Our data support international guidelines which recommend screening for mental health disorders as part of the comprehensive clinical care for women with this condition (57, 58). Further research is critical in understanding the mechanisms by which these risks arise in order to optimise interventions to reduce psychiatric morbidity.

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664	Tables and figures
665	
666	Table 1 Baseline characteristics for women with PCOS and matched controls – control set 1

Baseline Characteristics	Case		Control		p-value
Total, n (%)	16,938	100.00	16,938	100.00	-
Age (years), mean, SD	26.90	7.20	27.01	7.36	0.1983
Follow-up (years), median, LQ-UQ	3.87	1.80 - 7.25	2.81	1.20 - 5.80	< 0.0001
Observation period pre-index (years),	4.33	1.90 - 9.10	3.32	1.48 - 7.59	< 0.0001
median, LQ-UQ					
Primary care contact in prior year,	6	3 - 9	4	1 - 7	< 0.0001
median, LQ-UQ					
BMI (kg/m²), mean, SD	29.86	7.86	28.99	7.01	<0.0001
BMI (kg/m ²)					<0.0001
Underweight, (<20), n(%)	653	3.86	663	3.91	
Normal, (20-24), n(%)	1,652	9.75	1,683	9.94	
Overweight, (>24-29), n(%)	1,885	11.13	1,938	11.44	
Obesity, (>29-39), n(%)	2,955	17.45	3,335	19.69	
Extreme Obesity, (>39), n(%)	1,133	6.69	659	3.89	
Missing, n(%)	8,660	51.13	8,660	51.13	
Smoking					<0.0001
Never, n(%)	10,540	62.23	10,333	61	
Prior, n(%)	2,934	17.32	2,559	15.11	
Current, n(%)	4,394	25.94	4,918	29.04	
Missing, n(%)	174	1.03	727	4.29	
Alcohol					<0.0001
Never, n(%)	3,525	20.81	3,181	18.78	
Prior, n(%)	240	1.42	229	1.35	
Current, n(%)	9,713	57.34	9,812	57.93	
Missing, n(%)	3,460	20.43	3,716	21.94	
Diastolic BP					<0.0001
Diastolic BP (mmHg), mean, SD	74.97	9.82	73.52	9.55	<0.0001
<80, n(%)	6,128	36.18	6,878	40.61	
80-89,n(%)	2,913	17.2	2,783	16.43	
>89, n(%)	697	4.12	468	2.76	
Missing, n(%)	7,200	42.51	6,809	40.2	
Systolic BP					< 0.0001
Systolic BP (mmHg), mean, SD	118.78	13.78	117.89	13.26	< 0.0001
<120, n(%)	4,782	28.23	5,201	30.71	
120-139, (%)	4,170	24.62	4,286	25.3	
>139, n(%)	786	4.64	642	3.79	
Missing, n(%)	7,200	42.51	6.809	40.2	

Table 2 *Baseline characteristics for women with PCOS and matched controls – control set 2*

Baseline Characteristics		Case		Control		
Total, n(%)	16,355	100.00	16,355	100.00	-	
Age (years), mean, SD	26.93	7.21	27	7.37	0.3997	
Follow-up (years), median, LQ-UQ	3.88	1.81 - 7.26	3.07	1.32 - 6.70	< 0.0001	
Observation period pre-index (years),	4.30	1.89 - 9.05	3.67	1.63 - 8.13	< 0.0001	
median, LQ-UQ						
Primary care contact in prior year,	6	3 - 9	4	1 - 7	<0.0001	
median, LQ-UQ						
BMI (kg/m ²), mean, SD	29.68	7.83	28.84	7.07	< 0.0001	
BMI (kg/m ²)					<0.0001	
Underweight, (<20), n(%)	632	3.86	664	4.06		
Normal, (20-24), n(%)	1,600	9.78	1,594	9.75		
Overweight, (>24-29), n(%)	1,789	10.94	1,842	11.26		
Obesity, (>29-39), n(%)	2,721	16.64	3,052	18.66		
Extreme Obesity, (>39), n(%)	1,027	6.28	617	3.77		
Missing, n(%)	8,586	52.5	8,586	52.5		
Smoking					<0.0001	
Never, n(%)	10,051	61.46	10,231	62.56		
Prior, n(%)	2,459	15.04	2,970	18.16		
Current, n(%)	4,185	25.59	4,652	28.44		
Missing, n(%)	170	1.04	749	4.58		
Alcohol					<0.0001	
Never, n(%)	3,403	20.81	3,052	18.66		
Prior, n(%)	218	1.33	237	1.45		
Current, n(%)	9,378	57.34	9,342	57.12		
Missing, n(%)	3,356	20.52	3,724	22.77		
Diastolic BP					<0.0001	
Diastolic BP (mmHg), mean, SD	74.9	9.82	73.27	9.58	<0.0001	
<80, n(%)	5,887	36	6,765	41.36		
80-89,n(%)	2,773	16.96	2,496	15.26		
>89, n(%)	652	3.99	464	2.84		
Missing, n(%)	7,043	43.06	6,630	40.54		
Systolic BP					<0.0001	
Systolic BP (mmHg), mean, SD	118.71	13.78	117.85	13.06	< 0.0001	
<120, n(%)	4,576	27.98	4,999	30.57		
120-139, (%)	3,991	24.4	4,110	25.13		
>139, n(%)	745	4.56	616	3.77		
Missing, n(%)	7,043	43.06	6,630	40.54		

	Ca	ses	Controls		Hazard Ratio (CI)	p-value	
	Number	(Rate pky)	Number	(Rate pky)			
Control set 1	16,938		16,938				
Depression	3,545	42.62	2,327	34.46	1.26 (1.19 – 1.32)	<0.00001	
Anxiety	1,829	21.99	1,189	17.61	1.20 (1.11 – 1.29)	<0.00001	
Bipolar Disorder	402	4.83	246	3.64	1.21 (1.03 – 1.42)	0.02126	
Autism	14	0.83	16	0.94			
ADHD	13	0.77	11	0.65			
Schizophrenia	22	1.30	9	0.53			
Eating Disorder	125	7.57	72	4.36	1.37 (1.05 – 1.81)	0.02283	
Control set 2	16,355		16,355				
Depression	3,353	41.66	2,146	26.66	1.38 (1.30 – 1.45)	<0.00001	
Anxiety	1,717	21.33	1,017	12.64	1.39 (1.29 – 1.51)	<0.00001	
Bipolar Disorder	356	4.42	200	2.48			
Autism	9	0.55	3	0.18			
ADHD	8	0.49	6	0.37			
Schizophrenia	10	0.61	6	0.37			
Eating Disorder	118	7.40	63	3.95	1.54 (1.16 - 2.05)	0.00256	

Table 3 Number, crude rates and associated hazard ratios for depression, anxiety and bipolar disorder in women with PCOS and matched controls

pky: per 1,000 person years

Mental Health Disorder	Cases		Controls		Odds Ratio (CI)	p-value
	Number	(Rate pky)	Number	(Rate pky)		
Control set 1	8,962		8,885			
ADHD	81	4.81	56	3.32	1.64 (1.16 – 2.33)	0.00526
Autism	98	5.82	67	3.98	1.54 (1.12 – 2.11)	0.00068
Control set 2	8,695		8,973			
ADHD	74	4.44	65	3.90	1.34 (0.96 – 1.89)	0.08708
Autism	95	6.00	59	3.54	1.75 (1.27 – 2.46)	0.00080

Table 4 Number, rate and odds ratio of ADHD and autism in the children of mothers with PCOS and matched controls

pky: per 1,000 person years

Figure 1 Attrition chart for identification of pool of patients with PCOS

Figure 2 | *Kaplan-Meier curves showing time to depression and anxiety for patients with PCOS compared to matched controls.*