

1 **Title page**

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3 Prescriptions for insulin and insulin analogues in children with and without major congenital anomalies: A data
4 linkage cohort study across six European regions

5 **Authors**

6 Joanne Given¹ (ORCID: 0000-0003-4921-1944), Joan K Morris² (ORCID: 0000-0002-7164-612X), Ester Garne³
7 (ORCID: 0000-0003-0430-2594), Elisa Ballardini⁴ (ORCID: 0000-0002-8813-1835), Laia Barrachina-Bonet⁵
8 (ORCID: 0000-0002-5272-265X), Clara Caverro-Carbonell⁵ (ORCID: 0000-0002-4858-6456), Mika Gissler⁶
9 (ORCID: 0000-0001-8254-7525), Francesca Gorini⁷ (ORCID: ORCID: 0000-0002-4619-6227), Anna Heino⁶,
10 Sue Jordan⁸ (ORCID: 0000-0002-5691-2987), Amanda J Neville⁹, Anna Pierini⁷ (ORCID: 0000-0003-3321-
11 9343), Ieuan Scanlon⁸, Joachim Tan² (ORCID: 0000-0003-0462-4761), Stine K Urhoj¹⁰ (ORCID: 0000-0002-
12 2069-9723), Maria Loane¹ (ORCID: 0000-0002-1206-3637).

- 13 1. Faculty of Life & Health Sciences, Ulster University, Belfast, Northern Ireland, United Kingdom
14 2. Population Health Research Institute, St George's, University of London, London, United Kingdom
15 3. Pediatric Department, Hospital Lillebaelt, Kolding, Denmark
16 4. Neonatal Intensive Care Unit, Paediatric Section, IMER Registry, Dep. of Medical Sciences, University of
17 Ferrara, Ferrara, Italy
18 5. Rare Diseases Research Unit, Foundation for the Promotion of Health and Biomedical Research in the
19 Valencian Region, Valencia, Spain
20 6. THL Finnish Institute for Health and Welfare, Helsinki, Finland.
21 7. Unit of Epidemiology of Rare Diseases and Congenital Anomalies, Institute of Clinical Physiology,
22 National Research Council, Pisa, Italy
23 8. Faculty of Medicine, Health and Life Science, Swansea University, Swansea, Wales, United Kingdom
24 9. IMER Registry (Emilia Romagna Registry of Birth Defects), Center for Clinical and Epidemiological
25 Research, University of Ferrara, Ferrara, Italy.
26 10. Paediatric Department, Hospital Lillebaelt, Kolding, Denmark and Section of Epidemiology, Department of
27 Public Health, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark

28 **Corresponding author**

29 Maria Loane, email: ma.loane@ulster.ac.uk.

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39 **Abstract**

40 Purpose: Are children with major congenital anomalies more likely to develop diabetes requiring insulin
41 therapy, as indicated by prescriptions for insulin, than children without congenital anomalies? The aim of this
42 study is to evaluate prescription rates of insulin/insulin analogues in children aged 0-9 years with and without
43 major congenital anomalies.

44 Methods: A EUROlinkCAT data linkage cohort study, involving six population-based congenital anomaly
45 registries in five countries. Data on children with major congenital anomalies (60,662) and children without
46 congenital anomalies (1,722,912), the reference group, were linked to prescription records. Birth cohort and
47 gestational age were examined.

48 Results: The mean follow-up for all children was 6.2 years. In children with congenital anomalies aged 0-3
49 years, 0.04 per 100 child-years (95% CIs 0.01-0.07) had >1 prescription for insulin/insulin analogues compared
50 with 0.03 (95% CIs 0.01-0.06) in reference children, increasing ten-fold by age 8-9 years. The risk of >1
51 prescription for insulin/insulin analogues aged 0-9 years in children with non-chromosomal anomalies (RR 0.92,
52 95% CI 0.84-1.00) was similar to that of reference children. However, children with chromosomal anomalies
53 (RR 2.37, 95% CI 1.91-2.96), and specifically children with Down syndrome (RR 3.44, 95% CIs 2.70-4.37),
54 Down syndrome with congenital heart defects (RR 3.86, 95% CIs 2.88-5.16) and Down syndrome without

55 congenital heart defects (RR 2.78, 95% CIs 1.82-4.27), had a significantly increased risk of >1 prescription for
56 insulin/insulin analogues aged 0-9 years compared to reference children. Female children had a reduced risk of
57 >1 prescription aged 0-9 years compared with male children (RR 0.76, 95% CI 0.64-0.90 for children with
58 congenital anomalies and RR 0.90, 95% CI 0.87-0.93 for reference children). Children without congenital
59 anomalies born preterm (<37 weeks) were more likely to have >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription
60 compared to term births (RR 1.28, 95% CIs 1.20-1.36).

61 Conclusions: This is the first population-based study using a standardised methodology across multiple
62 countries. Males, children without congenital anomalies born preterm and those with chromosomal anomalies
63 had an increased risk of being prescribed insulin/insulin analogues. These results will help clinicians to identify
64 which congenital anomalies are associated with an increased risk of developing diabetes requiring insulin
65 therapy and allow them to reassure families of children who have non-chromosomal anomalies that their risk is
66 similar to that of the general population.

67 Abstract =372 words.

68 **Keywords**

69 Cohort study, Congenital anomalies, Data linkage, Down syndrome, Diabetes Mellitus requiring insulin.

70 **Abbreviations**

71 ATC Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical

72 CA congenital anomalies

73 CHD congenital heart defects

74 EUROCAT European Surveillance of Congenital Anomalies

75 MODY Maturity-onset diabetes of the young

76 ICD10-BPA International Classification of Diseases, Tenth Revision - British Paediatric Association

77 UK United Kingdom

78 **What is known:**

- 79 • Children and young adults with Down syndrome have an increased risk of diabetes requiring insulin
80 therapy

81 • Children born prematurely have an increased risk of developing diabetes requiring insulin therapy

82 **What is new**

83 • Children with non-chromosomal anomalies do not have an increased risk of developing diabetes
84 requiring insulin therapy compared to children without congenital anomalies

85 • Female children, with or without major congenital anomalies, are less likely to develop diabetes
86 requiring insulin therapy before the age of 10 compared to male children

87 **Introduction**

88 Congenital anomalies (CAs) (structural defects and chromosomal abnormalities) are a leading cause of infant
89 mortality, morbidity, and long-term disability. Little is known about the risk of co-morbidities in children with
90 CAs. The EUROlinkCAT project aims to investigate prescription rates of medications for chronic diseases as a
91 measure of co-morbidity in children with CAs [1]. This study focuses on insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions
92 used to treat diabetes in childhood. The most common type of diabetes requiring insulin therapy in children is
93 type 1 diabetes mellitus, with monogenic forms of diabetes affecting just 1.1-4.2% [2, 3] of those with
94 childhood diabetes.

95 Historically, a number of case reports and small scale cross-sectional studies reported a higher prevalence of
96 type 1 diabetes among those with Down syndrome than in the general population [4–8]. However, these studies
97 had a number of methodological issues including small highly selected samples, reliance on questionnaires with
98 low response-rates and urinalysis to diagnose diabetes. More recently, a population-based study using registry
99 data in Denmark (1981-2000) found a four-fold increased risk of type 1 diabetes in those with Down syndrome
100 aged between 2 and 22 years compared with the non-Down syndrome group (Odds Ratio (OR) 4.12, 95% CI
101 2.1– 8.2) [9]. A subsequent German study using diabetes registries reported that the onset of type 1 diabetes
102 occurred during the first 3 years of life in 18.9% of Down syndrome patients with type 1 diabetes and in 6.4% of
103 those with type 1 diabetes without Down syndrome [10]. Other genetic anomalies, such as Klinefelter syndrome
104 [11] and Turner syndrome [12–14] have also been linked with type 1 diabetes.

105 A case-control study in Sweden found that patients with type 1 diabetes and congenital heart defects (CHD) had
106 an earlier onset of diabetes compared with patients with type 1 diabetes without CHD (mean 13.9 versus 17.4
107 years, $p < 0.001$) [15]. A subsequent cohort study by the same group found that patients with CHD born 1970-
108 1984 had an increased risk of type 1 diabetes (HR 1.87, 95% CI 1.56-2.24), but not for those born 1985-1993
109 (HR 1.14, 95% CI 0.91-1.42), compared with matched controls [16].

110 Monogenic diabetes, which includes neonatal diabetes, maturity-onset diabetes of the young (MODY) and rare
111 forms of syndromic diabetes, are caused by one or more defects in a single gene [17, 18]. Genetics are estimated
112 to contribute to 50% of the risk of developing type 1 diabetes [19] but numerous environmental influences have
113 also been implicated.

114 The risk of diabetes requiring insulin therapy among children with CAs has not previously been examined in a
115 large sample, in multiple regions/countries using a standardised methodology. In this paper, we examine

116 prescriptions of insulin and insulin analogues, as an indicator of diabetes requiring insulin therapy, in six
117 European regions over a 15-year period for children with CAs compared with a cohort of reference children
118 without CAs [1].

119 **Methods**

120 EUROlinkCAT is a European, population-based linkage cohort study including data from six European
121 Surveillance of Congenital Anomalies (EUROCAT) registries ([https://eu-rd-](https://eu-rd-platform.jrc.ec.europa.eu/eurocat_en)
122 [platform.jrc.ec.europa.eu/eurocat_en](https://eu-rd-platform.jrc.ec.europa.eu/eurocat_en)), in five countries. Live born children with a major CA recorded in each
123 EUROCAT registry born between 2000 and 2014 were included, although not all registries covered the
124 complete time period: Denmark: Funen (2000-2014), Finland (2000-2014), Italy: Emilia Romagna (2008-2014),
125 Italy: Tuscany (2008-2014), Spain: Valencian Region (2010-2014) and UK: Wales (2000-2014). Live born
126 children without CAs born during the same time-period and from the same population area covered by the
127 registry were included as a reference group. Reference children covering the whole population were available
128 for all registries, apart from Tuscany, which had a sample of 10% of the reference population, matched on year
129 of birth and sex. All children born at 23 weeks or more gestational age were included in the study (in Wales
130 reference children born at 24 weeks or more were included).

131 **Classification of CAs**

132 CAs were classified according to the EUROCAT anomaly subgroups [20] using the International Classification
133 of Diseases, Ninth or Tenth Revision - British Paediatric Association codes [ICD9-BPA or ICD10-BPA]. CAs
134 are coded using codes beginning with 74-75 in ICD-9, and codes in the Q-chapter of ICD-10. Children with
135 only minor anomalies, defined as anomalies with lesser medical, functional or cosmetic consequences,
136 according to the EUROCAT definitions were excluded [20]. Children with metabolic or endocrine disorders are
137 not included in EUROCAT. Isolated anomalies are defined as anomalies within a single organ, as defined using
138 the EUROCAT algorithm [20]. Isolated CAs with sufficient insulin/insulin analogue exposed child-years to be
139 included in analysis were CHD [ICD10-BPA] Q20-Q26), cleft lip with or without cleft palate (Q36,Q37), cleft
140 palate (Q35), congenital hydronephrosis (Q62.0), club foot/talipes equinovarus (Q66.0), hip dislocation and/or
141 dysplasia (Q65.0-Q65.2, Q65.80, Q85.81), and craniosynostosis (Q75.0). Non-isolated CAs with sufficient
142 insulin/insulin analogue exposed child-years to be included in analysis were chromosomal anomalies (Q90-Q92,
143 Q93, Q96-Q99), Down syndrome (Q90), Down syndrome with CHD (Q90 with Q20-Q26) and Down syndrome
144 without CHD (Q90 without Q20-Q26).

145 Classification of insulin exposure

146 Prescriptions issued (UK, Wales) or dispensed (all other registries) were recorded in the prescription databases
147 using the WHO Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical (ATC) classification. Insulin/insulin analogues are recorded
148 using ATC codes starting with A10A. A child must have had at least two prescriptions in a single year to be
149 classified as exposed to insulin or insulin analogues. Restricting the analysis to at least two prescriptions for
150 insulin/insulin analogues reduces the risk of data entry errors inflating the proportion of children who are
151 considered to have diabetes.

152 Electronic prescription databases and linkage

153 Information on prescriptions issued or dispensed up to a child's 10th birthday (or 31st December 2015) was
154 available by linking to local prescription databases, see Supplemental Table S1. Data on prescriptions were
155 included from 1st January 2000 (or the first birth year with linked medication data available for each registry)
156 until 31st December 2015. This allowed at least one year of follow-up information for each child. Two registries
157 followed-up children from birth to 7 years (Emilia Romagna, and Tuscany) and one followed-up children from
158 birth to 5 years (Valencian Region). The remaining three registries had information on at least some children
159 from birth to 9 years of age.

160 Data standardisation

161 EUROCAT data on CAs were already standardized [20]. Prescription data in each participating registry were
162 standardized to a common data model and a central analysis script produced aggregate tables for analysis [1].
163 The aggregate tables were uploaded to a secure portal for download by the study team for pooled analysis.
164 Individual data on children remained at local registry level. Reference children were identified from birth
165 records. Both reference children and children with CAs could only be linked to a prescription record if they had
166 a valid ID number.

167 Small numbers

168 Four registries (Denmark: Funen, UK: Wales, Italy: Tuscany and Italy: Emilia Romagna) have rules for
169 releasing data with small numbers from their linked databases. The Secure Anonymised Information Linkage
170 (SAIL) databank (UK: Wales) provided data to the EUROlinkCAT Central Results Repository based at Ulster
171 University with the requirement that any individual counts involving one to four children would not be
172 published. Denmark: Funen and Italy: Emilia Romagna provided data with the requirement that any individual

173 results involving fewer than five children would not be released and Italy: Tuscany provided data with the
174 requirement that any individual results involving fewer than three children would not be released.

175 Statistical methods

176 The number of children in the population, number of child-years of follow-up, number with at least two
177 insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions/dispensations per year and prevalence per 100 child-years was calculated
178 for each year of age (for example birth to 1st birthday, one year of age to 2nd birthday etc.). To avoid potential
179 disclosure issues, ages were grouped where necessary into 0 to 3 years, 4 to 5 years, 6 to 7 years, 8 to 9 years
180 and 0 to 9 years.

181 Random effects meta-analysis was used to pool the prevalence of insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions using
182 the Freeman-Tukey Double Arcsine Transformation to stabilize the variances of the proportions. Random
183 effects meta-analysis was used to combine the relative risk (RR) of 2 or more prescriptions from each registry
184 for children with CAs compared with reference children. Heterogeneity between registries was assessed by
185 Cochran (Q) and I² statistics, which expressed the percentage of variation between registries.

186 As rates of insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions increased with age and there were differences between
187 registries, only those registries that had children with ten years of follow-up (Finland, Denmark: Funen and UK:
188 Wales) were included in the analysis investigating the risk of insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions for children
189 with specific anomalies. To comply with statistical disclosure controls, only anomalies with a total of >5
190 exposed child-years were examined. The number of child-years of follow-up and number with at least two
191 insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions/dispensations each year were summed for the three registries and used to
192 calculate the prevalence of insulin/insulin analogue prescription per 100 child-years and the RR compared with
193 reference children for each anomaly. The data were summed as the continuity corrections, which were necessary
194 due to the rarity of anomalies and insulin exposures in the age groups included in this study, greatly influenced
195 the RRs estimated from the standard meta-analytic procedures.

196 Analysis of risk factors

197 We examined the effect of birth cohort (births in 2000-2004 compared with 2005-2009) on risk of
198 insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions in reference children and children with CAs. The 0 to 9 age group could
199 not be used as the 2000-2004 birth cohort was the only one to have all children followed up for 9 years in the 3
200 regions with births starting in 2000 (Finland, Denmark: Funen and UK: Wales). We chose the 0 to 3 years age
201 group as all children in both birth cohorts had follow-up to at least 4 years of age. The effect of being born in

202 2010-2014 was not examined as those born at the end of the cohort were not followed up for the full 4 years.
203 RRs were calculated after summing the number of child-years of follow-up and number of children with at least
204 two insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions/dispensations each year.

205 We also examined the effect of gestational age (<37 weeks compared with ≥ 37 weeks) and sex (female
206 compared with male) on risk of insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions in reference children and children with
207 CAs from 0 to 9 years. RRs were calculated after summing the number of child-years of follow-up and number
208 with at least two insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions/dispensations each year, in each risk factor category, for
209 the registries with ten years of follow-up (Finland, Denmark: Funen and UK: Wales).

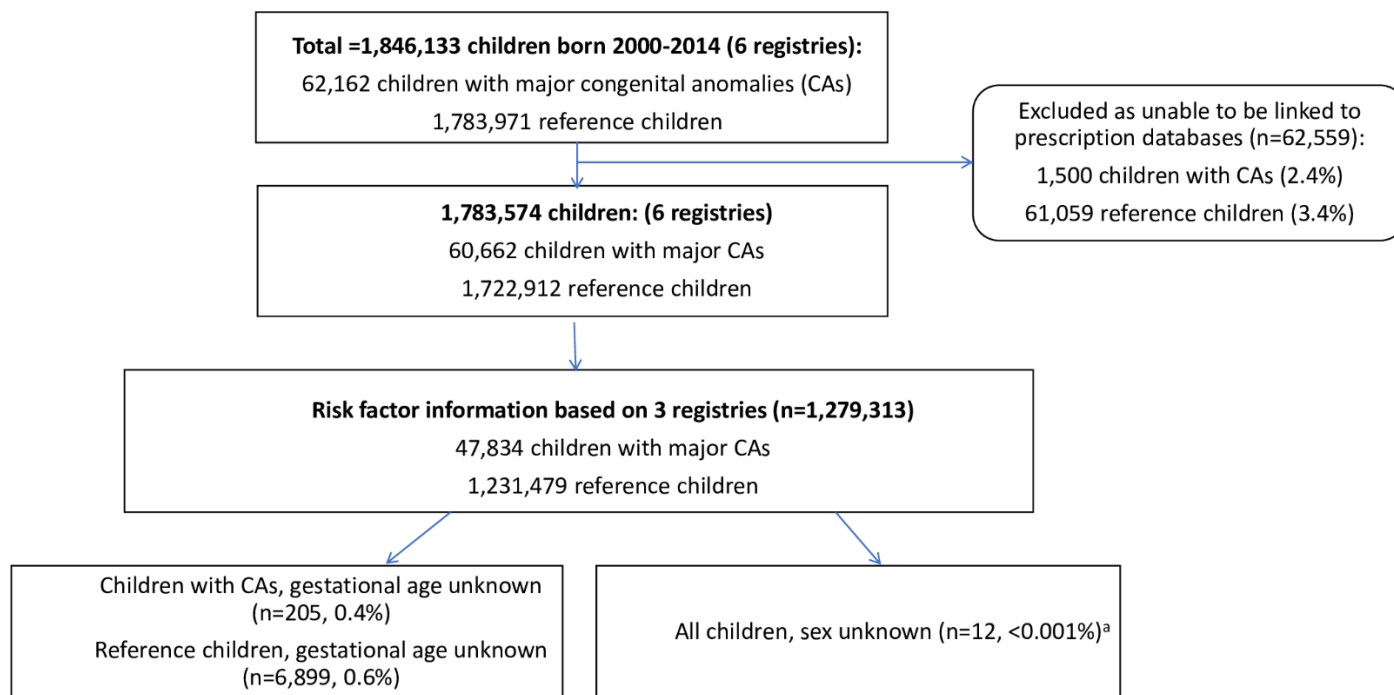
210 All statistical analyses were performed using Stata version 16.0 (StataCorp LP, College Station, TX, USA).

211 **Results**

212 The study population comprised 60,662 children with major CAs and 1,722,912 reference children without CAs,
213 (Fig 1). Together Finland and Wales contributed 67.6% of the population. Children with CAs were followed-up
214 for 376,166 child-years and reference children for 10,707,343 child-years. Mean follow-up for both children
215 with CAs and reference children was 6.2 years. Three registries had data on children up to their 10th birthday, of
216 which 18,898 were children with CAs (31.2% of all children with CAs) and 532,411 were reference children
217 (30.9% of all reference children).

218 **Fig 1 Total number of children born in the six regions, number included in the analysis and number with**
219 **missing risk factor information**

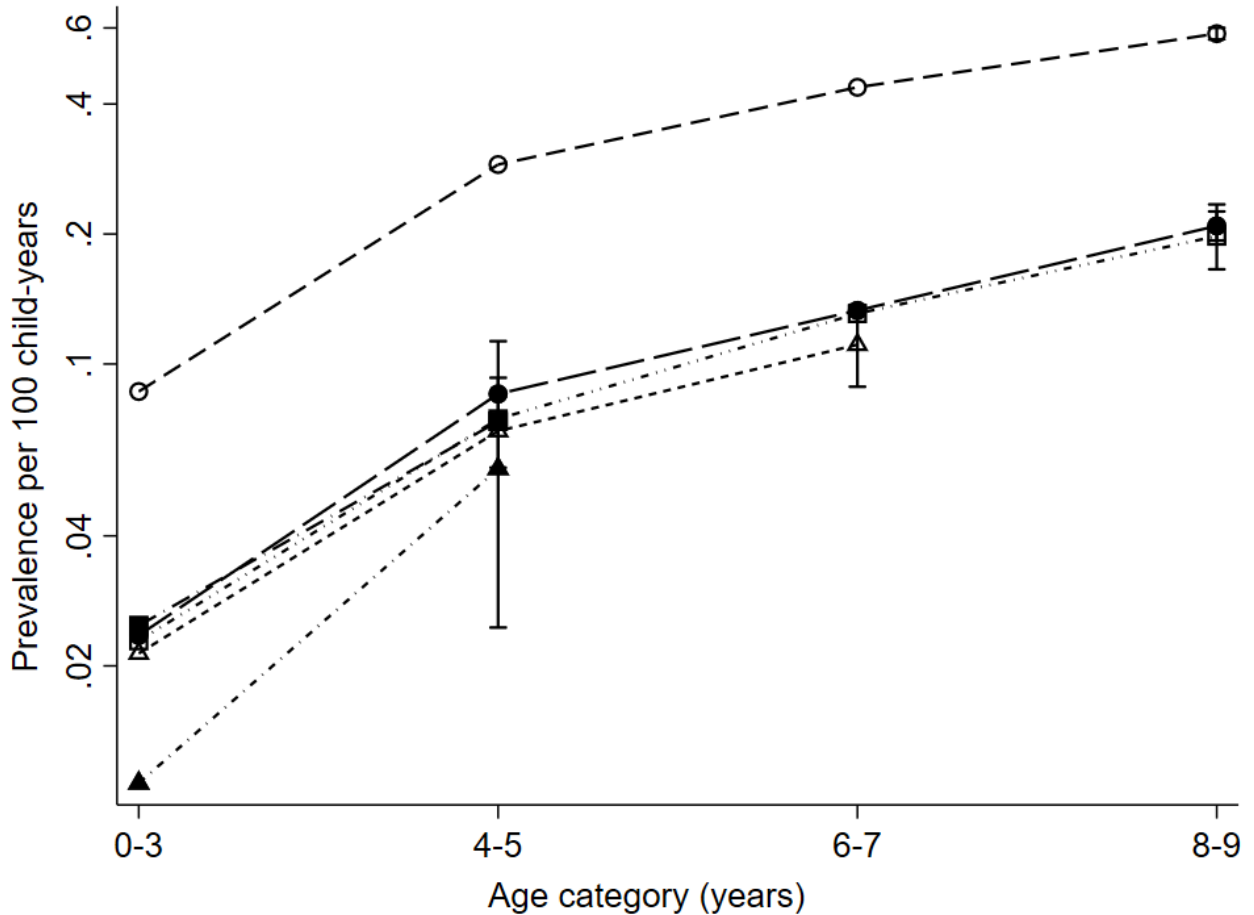
220



221 ^a Breakdown by reference children or children with CAs not provided, due to small numbers

222 Among children with CAs and reference children, the prevalence of >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription
 223 increased with age in all registries. At 4 to 5 years, the oldest age group with data for all registries, the
 224 prevalence of >1 prescription for insulin/insulin analogues was lowest for reference children in Italy: Tuscany
 225 (0.06, 95% CI 0.02-0.11 per 100 child-years) and highest in Finland (0.29, 95% CI 0.28-0.30 per 100 child-
 226 years). This pattern continued into the older age groups (Fig 2) (prevalence in Tuscany age 6 to 7 years not
 227 shown due to small numbers). The same pattern of prescriptions was observed in children with CAs, with the
 228 prevalence being much higher for children in Finland than in other registries. Prevalence by registry is not
 229 shown for children with CAs as some registries/age groups had ≤5 child-years with insulin/insulin analogue
 230 exposures.

231 **Fig 2 Prevalence per 100 child-years of insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions at 0 to 3, 4 to 5, 6 to 7 and 8**
 232 **to 9 years of age, and 95% CIs at last follow-up period (log scale), among reference children in each**
 233 **registry**



234
 235 White circle = Finland; Black circle = UK: Wales; White square = Denmark: Funen; Black square = Spain:
 236 Valencian Region; White triangle = Italy: Emilia Romagna; Black Triangle = Italy: Tuscany.

237 Meta-analysis (all registries combined)

238 In children with CAs, there was >1 prescription for insulin/insulin analogues in 0.04 per 100 child-years (95%
 239 CI 0.01-0.07, heterogeneity I^2 90.4%, $p < 0.001$) at 0 to 3 years of age compared with 0.03 per 100 child-years
 240 (95% CI 0.01-0.06, heterogeneity I^2 99.6%, $p < 0.001$) in the reference group. This increased to 0.40 per 100
 241 child-years (95% CI 0.22-0.63) among those with CAs aged 8 to 9 years and 0.31 per 100 child-years (95% CI
 242 0.10-0.63) in the reference group. Children with CAs were more likely to have >1 prescription for
 243 insulin/insulin analogues than reference children in all of the age groups examined, but none of these increases
 244 were statistically significant (Table 1).

245 **Table 1 Number of child-years with >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription, prevalence of insulin prescription per 100 child-years (95% CIs) aged 0 to 3, 4 to 5, 6**
 246 **to 7, 8 to 9 years (2000-2014) and Risk Ratio for exposure in children with CAs compared with reference children**

Age group	Reference children		Children with CAs		Children with CAs compared with reference children
	Child-years with >1 prescription	Prevalence per 100 child-years (95% CIs)	Child-years with >1 prescription	Prevalence per 100 child- years (95% CIs)	Risk Ratio (95% CIs)
0 to 3 years	3,168	0.03 (0.01-0.06)	130	0.04 (0.01-0.07)	1.46 (0.77-2.78)
4 to 5 years	3,947	0.10 (0.03-0.20)	143	0.12 (0.04-0.22)	1.16 (0.76-1.78)
6 to 7 years ^a	4,648	0.16 (0.05-0.33)	166	0.18 (0.06-0.37)	1.14 (0.78-1.65)
8 to 9 years ^b	4,773	0.31 (0.10-0.63)	163	0.40 (0.22-0.63)	1.24 (0.77-2.01)

247 ^a All registries excluding Spain: Valencian Region. ^b Includes Finland, UK: Wales and Denmark: Funen.

248 CAs=Congenital Anomalies; CI=Confidence Interval

249 Specific subgroups of CAs

250 We found a significantly increased risk of receiving >1 prescription for insulin/insulin analogues 0 to 9 years of
251 age among children with chromosomal anomalies (RR 2.37, 95% CI 1.91-2.96), and specifically in children
252 with Down syndrome (RR 3.44, 95% CI 2.70-4.37), Down syndrome with CHD (RR 3.86, 95% CI 2.88-5.16)
253 and Down syndrome without CHD (RR 2.78, 95% CI 1.82-4.27) compared to reference children (Table 2 and
254 Fig 3). The risk of receiving >1 prescription for insulin/insulin analogues in children 0 to 9 years of age with
255 non-chromosomal (RR 0.92, 95% CI 0.84-1.00) anomalies is similar to that of the reference children. Only
256 children with congenital hydronephrosis were found to have a significantly decreased risk (RR 0.57, 95% CI
257 0.35-0.92) of receiving >1 prescription for insulin/insulin analogues aged 0 to 9 years.

258

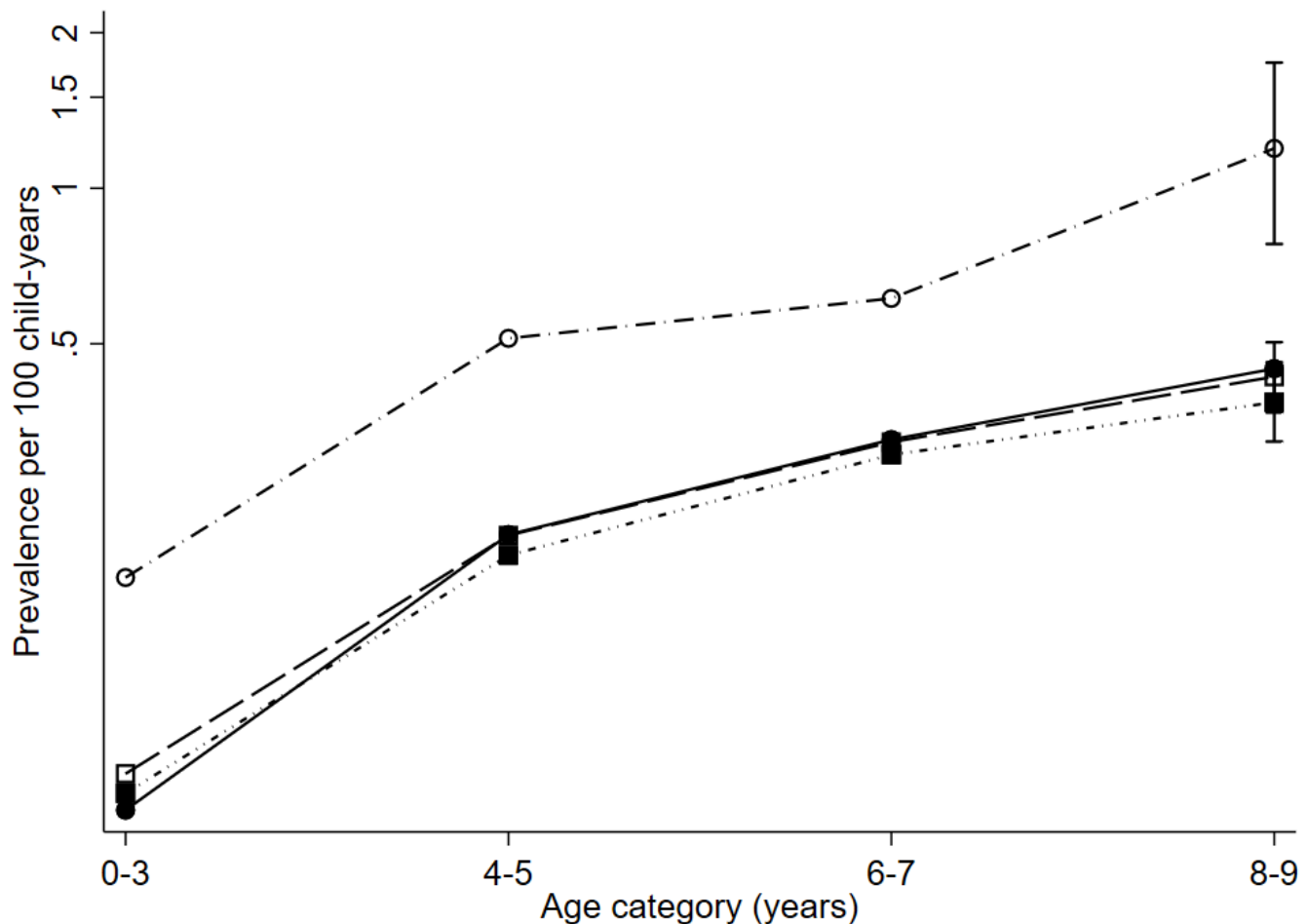
259 **Table 2 Number of children, number of child-years with >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription, prevalence of insulin/analogue prescription per 100 child-years**
 260 **(95% CIs) and Risk Ratio for >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription among CAs with >5 exposed child-years compared with reference children in Denmark:**
 261 **Funen; Finland and UK: Wales (0-9 years)**

	Number of children	Child-years with >1 prescription	Prevalence per 100 child-years (95% CIs)	Risk Ratio compared with reference children (95% CIs)
Reference children	1,231,479	15,852	0.18 (0.18-0.19)	NA
All CAs	47,834	593	0.18 (0.17-0.20)	1.00 (0.92-1.08)
Non-chromosomal anomalies	44,964	513	0.17 (0.15-0.18)	0.92 (0.84-1.00)*
CHD	15,637	185	0.18 (0.15-0.20)	0.97 (0.84-1.12)
Cleft lip with or without cleft palate	992	9	0.13 (0.06-0.24)	0.69 (0.36-1.32)
Cleft palate	968	20	0.28 (0.17-0.44)	1.55 (1.00-2.40)‡
Congenital hydronephrosis	2,410	17	0.10 (0.06-0.17)	0.57 (0.35-0.92)
Club foot	1,532	19	0.17 (0.10-0.26)	0.93 (0.59-1.46)
Hip dislocation and/or dysplasia	838	6	0.09 (0.03-0.21)	0.52 (0.23-1.15)

Craniosynostosis	527	10	0.28 (0.13-0.51)	1.53 (0.82-2.84)
Chromosomal anomalies	2,868	80	0.43 (0.34-0.54)	2.37 (1.91-2.96)
Down syndrome	1,507	66	0.63 (0.48-0.80)	3.44 (2.70-4.37)
Down syndrome with CHD	909	45	0.70 (0.51-0.94)	3.86 (2.88-5.16)
Down syndrome without CHD	598	21	0.51 (0.31-0.78)	2.78 (1.82-4.27)

262 CAs=Congenital Anomalies; CI=Confidence Interval; CHD=Congenital Heart Defect; * 0.999 before rounding; † >1.002 before rounding

263 **Fig 3 Prevalence per 100 child-years of insulin/insulin analogue prescription at 0 to 3, 4 to 5, 6 to 7 and 8**
 264 **to 9 years of age, and 95% CIs at 8 to 9 years, with insulin/insulin analogue prescription (log scale),**
 265 **among reference children, all CAs, Chromosomal and non-chromosomal CAs in Denmark: Funen;**
 266 **Finland and UK: Wales**



267

268 White circle = Chromosomal anomalies; Black circle = Reference children; White square = All CAs; Black
 269 square = Non-chromosomal anomalies. CAs=Congenital Anomalies

270 **Risk factors for diabetes**

271 Children born in 2000-2004 had a similar risk of receiving >1 prescription for insulin/insulin analogues aged 0
 272 to 3 as those born in 2005-2009; the RR was 1.04 (95% CI 0.66-1.62) for children with CAs, and 1.03 (95% CI
 273 0.94-1.12) for reference children.

274 Children with CAs born at <37 weeks gestational age had a 24% decreased risk of being issued/dispensed >1
 275 prescription aged 0 to 9 years (RR 0.76, 95% CI 0.58-0.99) compared with children born at ≥37 weeks which

276 was borderline statistically significant. In reference children the opposite effect was seen as the risk of being
277 issued/dispensed >1 prescription was increased 28% (RR 1.28, 95% CI 1.20-1.36) in children born at <37 weeks
278 compared with those born \geq 37 weeks gestation.

279 Female children had a reduced risk of being issued/dispensed >1 prescription aged 0 to 9 years compared with
280 male children (RR 0.76, 95% CI 0.64-0.90 for children with CAs and RR 0.90, 95% CI 0.87-0.93 for reference
281 children).

282 Sensitivity analysis

283 When the criterion of at least two prescriptions for insulin/insulin analogues to indicate type 1 diabetes was
284 relaxed to at least one prescription for insulin/insulin analogues, the prevalence among children with CAs
285 increased slightly from 0.08 to 0.09 (95% CI 0.03-0.17) per 100 child-years by the end of follow-up (mean 6.2
286 years). There was no change from 0.07 per 100 child-years by the end of follow-up (mean 6.2 years) for
287 reference children.

288 Discussion

289 This is the first population-based study to examine insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions in children with all
290 major CAs, and specific CAs, compared with reference children. As expected, we found increasing prevalence
291 with increasing age. There was evidence for considerable heterogeneity among regions in terms of the
292 prevalence of insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions for both reference children and children with CAs. This is
293 expected as the incidence rate for type 1 diabetes, which will account for most cases of childhood diabetes
294 requiring insulin therapy, varies markedly between countries [21]. In Europe there is a north–south gradient in
295 the incidence of type 1 diabetes [22], with Finland having the highest incidence of type 1 diabetes in childhood
296 in Europe [23, 24] which is consistent with our findings.

297 The prevalence of insulin/insulin analogue prescriptions among all children with CAs was not statistically
298 significantly different to that seen among reference children. However, children with chromosomal anomalies,
299 specifically children with Down syndrome, were at an increased risk of >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription
300 compared with reference children. This finding is in agreement with previous studies based on crude measures
301 of diabetes [4, 5, 9] or small sample sizes [4, 5, 7]. An earlier population-based study identified 8 children with
302 Down syndrome and type 1 diabetes out of 2,094 children with Down syndrome which corresponded to a 4.2
303 fold increased prevalence compared with the background population [9]. Our findings of a 3.4 fold increased
304 prevalence corroborate this. Beta cell autoantibodies have been identified in Down syndrome patients with type

305 1 diabetes supporting an autoimmune cause of diabetes in at least a proportion of children with Down syndrome
306 and type 1 diabetes [10, 25]. Parents of children with chromosomal anomalies should be made aware of the
307 increased risk of developing diabetes and should be informed of the symptoms of diabetes so that they are aware
308 of these.

309 Children with CHD were not at an increased risk of >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription compared with
310 reference children aged 0 to 9 years. The two previous studies in Sweden which explored type 1 diabetes among
311 those with CHD did not use standardized CA registry data. Instead, they used the National Patient Register on
312 hospitalizations (inpatient and outpatient diagnoses) or death certificates and included a range of non-CHD
313 diagnoses in the ICD codes used to identify CHD cases, such as secondary hypertension (which may be
314 secondary to diabetes) and vitium organicum cordis [16]. The CHD population will therefore have included
315 some non-CHD cases and those with minor anomalies, such as patent ductus arteriosus in pre-term infants and
316 foramen ovale, which are excluded from EUROCAT data. The increased risk of developing type 1 diabetes
317 among those with CHD born in 1970-1984, but not among those born 1985-1993 [16], may also reflect better
318 recording of both CHD and type 1 diabetes in more recent years.

319 This study highlights the difficulty of exploring a rare disease among children with rare anomalies. It is only
320 through pooling data from several countries or regions, such as performed in this EUROlinkCAT study, that we
321 were able to examine the risk of diabetes requiring insulin therapy for a number of anomalies not previously
322 described in the literature. It was not possible to examine the risk of receiving >1 prescription for insulin/insulin
323 analogues in children with Klinefelter and Turner syndrome due to the rarity of these anomalies and the small
324 number that were born alive. Future studies should include additional countries and years of follow-up to allow
325 an examination of risk in rare congenital anomalies. If data on screening and genetic testing were available, it
326 may also be possible to distinguish between type 1 diabetes and monogenic diabetes in children less than one
327 year old in future studies. In our study, all children had at least 1 year of follow-up, yet the prevalence of being
328 issued/dispensed >1 prescription for insulin/insulin analogues was lowest in children 0-3 years. It is possible
329 that children with chromosomal anomalies may have an increased risk of requiring insulin therapy given the
330 genetic origins of monogenic diabetes, but given the rarity of monogenic diabetes, affecting 1-4% of childhood
331 diabetes, it is unlikely that this will have affected our results on children with chromosomal anomalies. The
332 decreased risk of receiving >1 prescription for insulin/insulin analogues among those with congenital
333 hydronephrosis has not previously been reported and may be a chance finding due to the number of comparisons

334 made. It should be confirmed in other data sources before children with congenital hydronephrosis are
335 considered to truly have a decreased risk of type 1 diabetes.

336 The prevalence of >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription in reference children and in children with CAs aged 0
337 to 3 years born between 2000-2004 was not statistically significantly different to the prevalence rates for
338 children born 2005-2009. Based on a large multicentre European study 1989-2013, Patterson et al. (2019)
339 reported a 3.7% per annum increase in incidence rate of type 1 diabetes in both boys and girls aged 0-4 years. In
340 the same study, they also reported a possible slowing down of increasing incidence among children under 15
341 years of age in the 2004-2008 period. In particular, the increase in incidence rates in high-incidence countries
342 such as Finland and two out of three UK centres (Oxford and Northern Ireland) started to abate [26]. Harjutsalo
343 et al. (2013) found that the previously increasing incidence (1988-2005) of type 1 diabetes in children under 15
344 years of age in Finland had plateaued in the most recent years (2005-2011) [27]. The fact that it was only
345 possible to examine the change in prevalence over time in the 0-3 year age group in the earlier years may also
346 have contributed to the failure to find any evidence for increasing prevalence rates over time, as the incidence of
347 type 1 diabetes peaks in puberty [28].

348 As per the literature, reference children born <37 weeks gestational age have a higher risk of >1 insulin/insulin
349 analogue prescription than those born at term. Preterm birth has previously been associated with increased risk
350 of developing type 1 diabetes [29]. The higher risk of type 1 diabetes in preterm born children may be explained
351 by reduced insulin sensitivity [30], gut dysbiosis [31], exposure to antenatal corticosteroids [32] and rapid
352 weight gain in infancy [33] due to catch up growth [34]. Some forms of neonatal diabetes are associated with in
353 utero insulin secretory insufficiency and growth retardation [35] which may in turn lead to elective preterm
354 delivery [36]. Our study included children born from 23 weeks gestational age, so those born very preterm were
355 included. Preterm children with CAs had a reduced risk of >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription compared
356 with children with CAs born at term, which was of borderline significance. This may reflect the small sample
357 size or slower weight gain in infancy in these children due to the impact of their anomalies [37, 38].

358 Type 1 diabetes does not show a strong female bias, unlike many other common autoimmune diseases such as
359 hyperthyroidism, thyroiditis, rheumatoid arthritis, and multiple sclerosis [39]. The incidence of type 1 diabetes
360 peaks in puberty, which occurs in girls earlier than boys, but the follow-up period was just short of this [28]. In
361 adults, males and females have the same prevalence of type 1 diabetes and it may be the case that the reduced
362 risk for females seen here would not be present were the sample followed up to early adulthood. However, the

363 prevalence is slightly higher in adult males in the USA, Denmark and Sweden and adult females in Japan,
364 Australia and Africa [22, 39].

365 The main strength of this study is the population-based setting. Information is available on over 1.78 million
366 children with valid ID numbers that allowed children to be linked to their prescriptions, from six European
367 regions, in five countries covering both Northern and Southern Europe. In addition, the EUROCAT registries
368 have a high level of case ascertainment and use standardized definitions and coding of CAs to ensure
369 consistency across Europe. The use of reference children for comparison enables interpretation of the results for
370 children with CAs in the context of results for unaffected children. In five of the six regions, reference children
371 represented 100% of the national/regional population. Finally, this study used electronic prescription records for
372 insulin/insulin analogues as a proxy for diabetes rather than depending on diagnoses recorded in electronic
373 hospital/medical records. It is widely accepted that the quality of electronic prescription records is good,
374 especially if these have been established for a number of years, as is the case in our study (e.g., electronic
375 prescriptions in earlier years for Valencian Region, Spain, were not included in this study, as there were known
376 data quality issues).

377 A potential limitation of this study is that we do not have access to hospital prescribing, as some children may
378 have been prescribed insulin/insulin analogues at hospital. However, if a child has been diagnosed with diabetes
379 requiring insulin therapy, then that child will use insulin for the rest of his/her life, and these prescriptions are
380 issued in primary care. Therefore, we are confident that we are not overestimating diabetes requiring insulin
381 therapy, though we may miss some in younger age groups if these children got their prescriptions in hospital.
382 Finland and Wales accounted for two-thirds of the data, so data from these countries heavily influence the
383 results and may not be representative of Europe as Finland has the highest prevalence of type 1 diabetes in
384 Europe, and Wales has one of the highest rates of child poverty in Western Europe. Also, we did not have
385 complete follow-up to the child's 10th birthday for all children in the study.

386 This is the first population-based study to use a standardised methodology to examine prescribing of
387 insulin/insulin analogues in children with all CAs, and a range of specific CAs, compared with reference
388 children. While all children with CAs were not at increased risk of diabetes requiring insulin therapy, children
389 with specific chromosomal anomalies, particularly children with Down syndrome and CHD, had an increased
390 risk. The results will help clinicians to identify which congenital anomalies are associated with an increased risk

391 of developing diabetes requiring insulin therapy and allow them to reassure families of children who have non-
392 chromosomal anomalies that their risk is similar to that of the general population.

393 **Statements and Declarations**

394 **Competing Interests**

395 The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

396 **Contribution statement**

397 Joan K Morris, Maria Loane, and Ester Garne conceptualised and designed the study. Data were provided by
398 Elisa Ballardini, Laia Barrachina-Bonet, Clara Caverro-Carbonell, Ester Garne, Mika Gissler, Francesca Gorini,
399 Anna Heino, Amanda J Neville, Anna Pierini, Ieuan Scanlon and Stine K Urhoj. The analysis and first draft of
400 the manuscript was written by Joanne Given. All authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript and
401 read and approved the final manuscript.

402 **Ethics**

403 A study protocol was developed for EUROCAT registries to obtain local ethical and governance approval for
404 the study according to their national legislation [1]. Ethical approval for this study was given by the Ulster
405 University, Institute of Nursing and Health Research Ethics Filter Committee (FCNUR), approval number
406 FCNUR-21-060.

407 **Consent to participate**

408 As each registry uploaded aggregate data only to the research team, individual consent was not required, as no
409 individual could be identified from the uploaded tables.

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Tables

Table 3 Number of child-years with >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription, prevalence of insulin prescription per 100 child-years (95% CIs) aged 0 to 3, 4 to 5, 6 to 7, 8 to 9 years (2000-2014) and Risk Ratio for exposure in children with CAs compared with reference children

Age group	Reference children		Children with CAs		Children with CAs compared with reference children
	Child-years with >1 prescription	Prevalence per 100 child-years (95% CIs)	Child-years with >1 prescription	Prevalence per 100 child-years (95% CIs)	Risk Ratio (95% CIs)
0 to 3 years	3,168	0.03 (0.01-0.06)	130	0.04 (0.01-0.07)	1.46 (0.77-2.78)
4 to 5 years	3,947	0.10 (0.03-0.20)	143	0.12 (0.04-0.22)	1.16 (0.76-1.78)
6 to 7 years ^a	4,648	0.16 (0.05-0.33)	166	0.18 (0.06-0.37)	1.14 (0.78-1.65)
8 to 9 years ^b	4,773	0.31 (0.10-0.63)	163	0.40 (0.22-0.63)	1.24 (0.77-2.01)

^a All registries excluding Spain: Valencian Region. ^b Includes Finland, UK: Wales and Denmark: Funen.

CAs=Congenital Anomalies; CI=Confidence Interval

Table 4 Number of children, number of child-years with >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription, prevalence of insulin/analogue prescription per 100 child-years (95% CIs) and Risk Ratio for >1 insulin/insulin analogue prescription among CAs with >5 exposed child-years compared with reference children in Denmark: Funen; Finland and UK: Wales (0-9 years)

	Number of children	Child-years with >1 prescription	Prevalence per 100 child-years (95% CIs)	Risk Ratio compared with reference children (95% CIs)
Reference children	1,231,479	15,852	0.18 (0.18-0.19)	NA
All CAs	47,834	593	0.18 (0.17-0.20)	1.00 (0.92-1.08)
Non-chromosomal anomalies	44,964	513	0.17 (0.15-0.18)	0.92 (0.84-1.00)*
CHD	15,637	185	0.18 (0.15-0.20)	0.97 (0.84-1.12)
Cleft lip with or without cleft palate	992	9	0.13 (0.06-0.24)	0.69 (0.36-1.32)
Cleft palate	968	20	0.28 (0.17-0.44)	1.55 (1.00-2.40)‡
Congenital hydronephrosis	2,410	17	0.10 (0.06-0.17)	0.57 (0.35-0.92)
Club foot	1,532	19	0.17 (0.10-0.26)	0.93 (0.59-1.46)

Hip dislocation and/or dysplasia	838	6	0.09 (0.03-0.21)	0.52 (0.23-1.15)
Craniosynostosis	527	10	0.28 (0.13-0.51)	1.53 (0.82-2.84)
Chromosomal anomalies	2,868	80	0.43 (0.34-0.54)	2.37 (1.91-2.96)
Down syndrome	1,507	66	0.63 (0.48-0.80)	3.44 (2.70-4.37)
Down syndrome with CHD	909	45	0.70 (0.51-0.94)	3.86 (2.88-5.16)
Down syndrome without CHD	598	21	0.51 (0.31-0.78)	2.78 (1.82-4.27)

CAs=Congenital Anomalies; CI=Confidence Interval; CHD=Congenital Heart Defect; * 0.999 before rounding; ‡ >1.002 before rounding

Figure legends

Figure 1

^a Breakdown by reference children or children with CAs not provided, due to small numbers

Figure 2

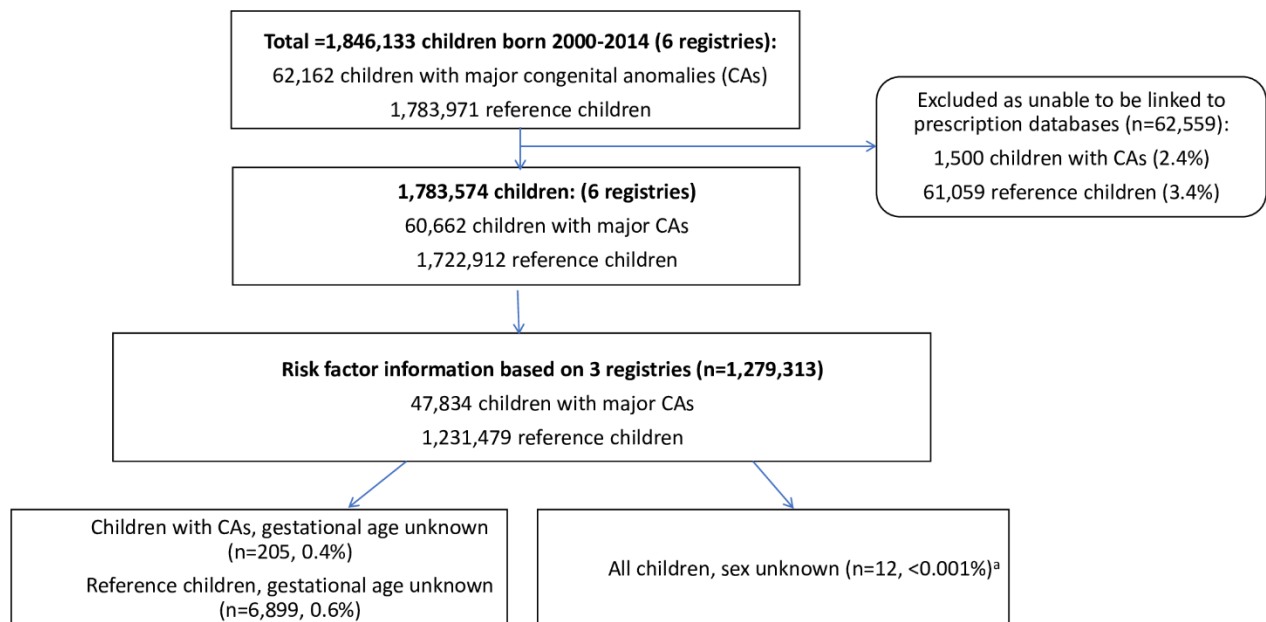
White circle = Finland; Black circle = UK: Wales; White square = Denmark: Funen; Black square = Spain: Valencian Region; White triangle = Italy: Emilia Romagna; Black Triangle = Italy: Tuscany.

Figure 3

White circle = Chromosomal anomalies; Black circle = Reference children; White square = All CAs; Black square = Non-chromosomal anomalies. CAs=Congenital Anomalies

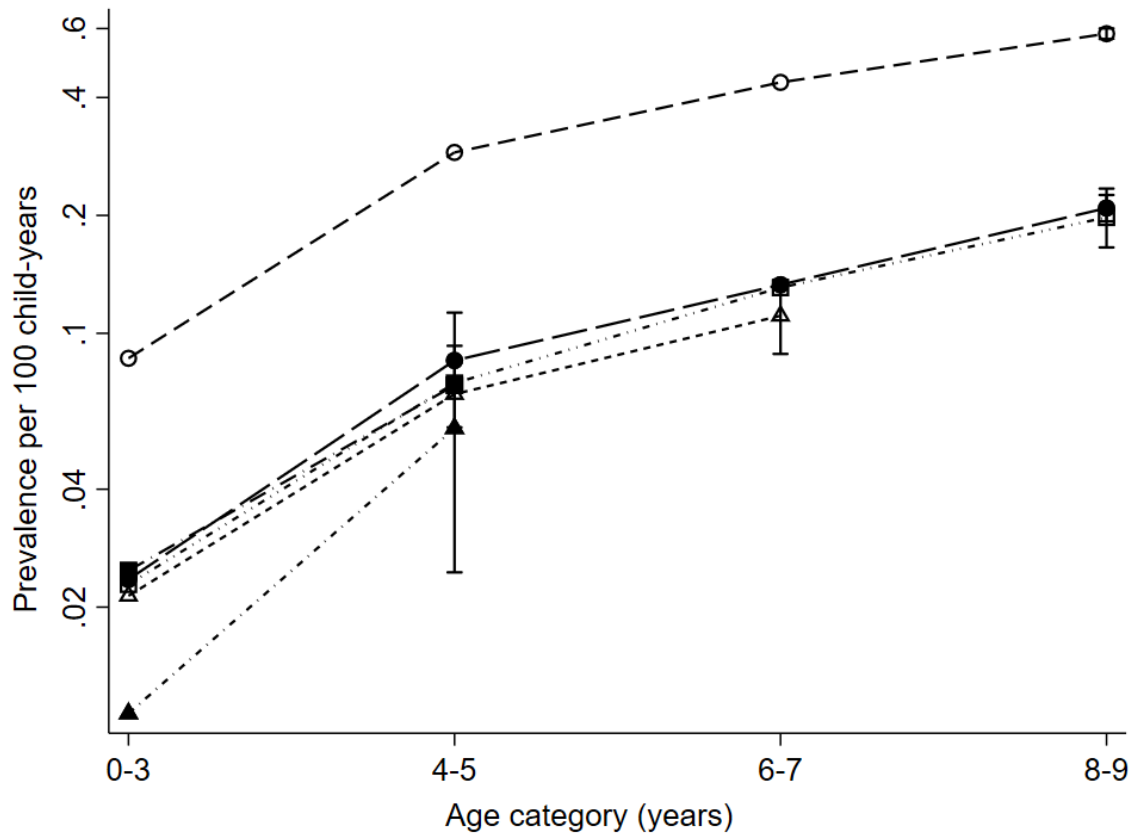
Figures

Figure 1 Total number of children born in the six regions, number included in the analysis and number with missing risk factor information



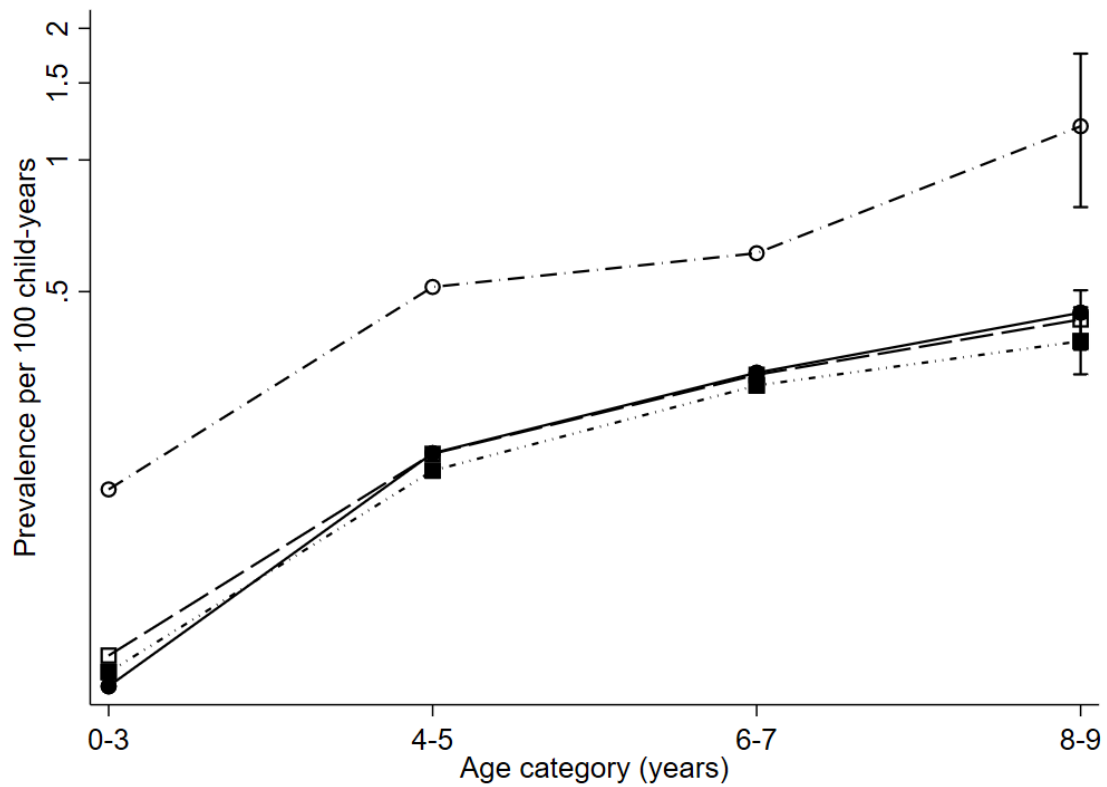
^a Breakdown by reference children or children with CAs not provided, due to small numbers

Figure 2 Prevalence per 100 child-years of insulin/insulin analogue prescription at 0 to 3, 4 to 5, 6 to 7 and 8 to 9 years of age, and 95% CIs at last follow-up period (log scale), among reference children in each registry



White circle = Finland; Black circle = UK: Wales; White square = Denmark: Funen; Black square = Spain: Valencian Region; White triangle = Italy: Emilia Romagna; Black Triangle = Italy: Tuscany.

Figure 3 Prevalence per 100 child-years of insulin/insulin analogue prescription at 0 to 3, 4 to 5, 6 to 7 and 8 to 9 years of age, and 95% CIs at 8 to 9 years, with insulin/insulin analogue prescription (log scale), among reference children, all CAs, Chromosomal and non-chromosomal CAs in Denmark: Funen; Finland and UK: Wales



White circle = Chromosomal anomalies; Black circle = Reference children; White square = All CAs; Black square = Non-chromosomal anomalies. CAs=Congenital Anomalies