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## Can early intake of dietary omega-3 predict childhood externalizing behavior?

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13 **Can early intake of dietary omega-3 predict childhood externalizing behaviour?**  
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**ABSTRACT**

**Aim:** To determine whether maternal and child intake of dietary omega-3 fatty acids, together with the presence or absence of breastfeeding, predicted psychiatric diagnosis of externalising disorders in childhood.

**Methods:** Data concerning childhood externalising disorders was collected from 8242 children aged 7.9 years in a large British cohort. Intake of omega-3 fatty acids was measured for the study mother during pregnancy and for the child at three years. Duration of breastfeeding was examined to account for moderating effects. Adjustment was made for a variety of potential confounders.

**Results:** Maternal intake of omega-3 and breastfeeding predicted oppositional / conduct disorder and comorbid externalising disorder before adjustment for confounding factors. However, there was no association between intake of omega-3 by mother or child and any type of externalising disorder once socio-demographic factors were taken into account.

**Conclusions:** Any association between intake of omega-3 and childhood externalising disorders appears to be strongly confounded with sociodemographic factors. This is important to note given the current popularity of omega-3 as a possible treatment for behaviour problems related to inattention and impulsivity. Care must be taken that studies investigating this relationship account fully for factors associated with both behaviour and diet.

Keywords: ALSPAC, breastfeeding, externalising behaviour, longitudinal study, omega-3

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3 Nutrition in infancy or early childhood is associated with childhood behaviours such as inattentiveness,  
4  
5 hyperactivity, impulsivity and anti-social behaviour; these, in turn are associated with childhood externalising  
6  
7 disorders including ADHD [1]. One group of nutrients associated with externalising disorders in children is that of  
8  
9 essential fatty acids (EFAs). Results from two recent randomised control trials conclude that nutritional  
10  
11 interventions using a combined fatty acid supplement reduce problems such as inattention, hyperactivity and  
12  
13 impulsivity in middle childhood and that these effects can be maintained over time [2, 3] but other studies report  
14  
15 no effects [4].

16  
17 EFAs are essential for both optimal development [5] and the functioning of the central nervous system (CNS)  
18  
19 [6]. During the last trimester of pregnancy and up to two years of age, they accumulate rapidly in the CNS of the  
20  
21 infant, transferring from mother to child via the placenta and in breast-milk. EFAs must be obtained from the  
22  
23 maternal diet from foods like oily fish as they cannot be synthesised by humans [7]. However early  
24  
25 neurodevelopment may be compromised if maternal levels of EFAs are not supplemented by diet during  
26  
27 pregnancy and lactation [5] or if infant levels are not maintained post-natally via breast or supplemented feeding  
28  
29 and complementary foods [8].

30  
31 The current paper focuses upon one type of EFA, the omega-3 series of long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acids (LC-  
32  
33 PUFAs). LC-PUFAs are found primarily in cell membrane phospholipids, are important in the regulation of cell  
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35 function and affect gene transcription [5]. They are necessary during periods of rapid growth (pre-natal development,  
36  
37 early childhood and adolescence) and nutrient loss (pregnancy and lactation) [6]. Neonates with neurological  
38  
39 dysfunction have lower indices of both LC-PUFAs and EFAs [8] and there is increased risk of suboptimal cognitive,  
40  
41 social and motor skills in children at eight years of age as maternal intake of FAs during pregnancy declines [9]. On  
42  
43 the other hand, increased CNS maturity is observed in infants who are breastfed [10] possibly because of the transfer  
44  
45 of LC-PUFAs and other fatty acids in breast milk [11]. The aim of the present study was to determine whether  
46  
47 maternal intake of omega-3 LC-PUFAs at 32 weeks gestation and by the child aged three years predicted diagnosis  
48  
49 of externalizing disorders overall and specific sub-types of disorders in middle childhood. We also examined the  
50  
51 moderating effects of breastfeeding in the relationship between diagnosis of externalising disorders and intake of  
52  
53 omega-3 in pregnancy and childhood.

## 54 MATERIALS AND METHODS

55  
56 *Patients:* The data analysed here were collected for the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children  
57  
58 (ALSPAC: see [www.bristol.ac.uk/alspac/](http://www.bristol.ac.uk/alspac/)), reported in detail elsewhere [12]. Within the former county of Avon,  
59  
60 UK, 14,541 pregnant women expected to deliver between April 1991 and December 1992 enrolled into the

## Dietary omega-3 and childhood externalising behaviour

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3 study. By the time children entered primary school (aged 5), around 11,500 families were still participating.  
4  
5 Mothers consented to join the study at recruitment and were free to withdraw at any time; all aspects of the study  
6  
7 conform to the ethical regulations of both the ALSPAC Law and Ethics Committee and local research ethics  
8  
9 committees.

10  
11 As with many longitudinal studies there was attrition from ALSPAC during the data collection period. When the  
12  
13 study children were aged 7.9 years (SD 1.4 months) behavioural data was returned by parents for 8242 children  
14  
15 (59%) and by teachers for 5115 study children (39%). Mothers who dropped out from the study (non-responders)  
16  
17 were younger than those who remained ( $p < .001$ ), were more likely to leave school earlier ( $p < .001$ ), were more  
18  
19 likely to live in rented accommodation ( $p < .001$ ) and were more likely to still be smoking in pregnancy ( $p < .001$ ).  
20  
21 These families were also exposed to higher levels of family adversity during the pregnancy ( $p < .001$ ). Babies born  
22  
23 to non-responders were more likely to have been born prematurely ( $p < .001$ ) and to weigh less than 2500g  
24  
25 ( $p < .001$ ). These babies were less likely to have been breastfed ( $p < .001$ ). Non-responder mothers had lower levels  
26  
27 of omega-3 in their diet than those who remained in the study ( $p < .001$ ) but there was no difference in the omega-3  
28  
29 intake of the children at 3 years of age. (Actual data for this comparison are provided in a supplementary file).

30  
31 *Diet Assessment:* Information on mother's diet at 32 weeks gestation and child's diet at 3 years was collected using  
32  
33 food-frequency questionnaires; details are provided elsewhere [13]. The transfer of EFAs during the final trimester  
34  
35 of pregnancy is important for the infant's neurological development and although the CNS is no longer so  
36  
37 demanding of omega-3 for development at 3 years of age, intake at this stage might be considered as a  
38  
39 maintenance dose. Three questions on seafood consumption were used to estimate omega-3 intake per week for  
40  
41 mothers and children and intake was categorised as either high or low [9, 14]. Mothers and children with high  
42  
43 intake were used as the reference group in analyses. Infant-feeding data were taken from the 15-month  
44  
45 questionnaire with the reference group being children who were breastfed for any period of time. Confounding  
46  
47 factors associated with diet were: maternal age and education, family adversity during pregnancy (an aggregate  
48  
49 measure of 18 variables measuring adverse family circumstances including maternal psychopathology, financial  
50  
51 difficulties and standard of housing) [15] and whether the mother smoked cigarettes during pregnancy (never  
52  
53 smoked, stopped smoking in pregnancy, still smoking in pregnancy).

54  
55 *Behavioural data:* Information about child behaviour at 7.9 years was collected from parents and teachers using a  
56  
57 questionnaire version of the Development and Well-Being Assessment (DAWBA) [16]. This is a validated  
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59 measure consisting of structured and semi-structured questions. An experienced clinician (TF) combined all  
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information about symptoms and their impact using a computerised heuristic to make DSM-IV diagnoses of

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2  
3 childhood psychiatric disorders [17]. Data from teacher questionnaires were available for 66% of children with  
4 parent data. Confounding factors associated with behaviour were gender, gestational age (<37 weeks or >=37  
5 weeks) and birth weight (<2500g or >=2500g).  
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8  
9 *Statistical methods:* All analyses were undertaken using STATA 9.0[18]. Diagnoses of externalizing disorders  
10 were categorised into groups: oppositional defiant disorder or conduct disorder without any type of comorbid  
11 disorder (“pure ODD/CD”: N = 189), attention-deficit hyperactive disorder without any type of comorbid disorder  
12 (“pure ADHD”: N = 103) or ADHD plus ODD/CD (comorbid disorder, N = 72). We focussed on “pure” disorders  
13 and ADHD plus ODD / CD as a separate group so that children with comorbid disorders were not double-counted.  
14  
15 Descriptive statistics were calculated by diagnostic category (Table 1). (Table 1 about here)  
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18  
19 Unadjusted independent logistic regressions were carried out to predict diagnosis using mother and child omega-3  
20 FA consumption and whether or not the child was breast-fed, together with an interaction term for breast-feeding  
21 by maternal intake of omega-3 FAs. The interaction term allowed the identification of a) mothers who breastfed  
22 but did not eat oily fish during pregnancy and b) those who ate oily fish during pregnancy but did not breastfeed.  
23  
24 Multivariate step-wise models were built adjusting for all confounding factors. To account for multiple analyses, a  
25 conservative value of  $p < .001$  was used.  
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## 32 **RESULTS**

33  
34 *Dietary factors:* Children with “pure ODD / CD” were less likely to have been breastfed ( $p < .001$ ). However, the  
35 evidence for differences in omega-3 intake by either mother or child between children diagnosed with a disorder  
36 and those without was weak ( $p \geq .001$ ) (Table 1).  
37  
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39  
40 *Externalising disorders:* For every type of externalizing disorder, more boys were diagnosed than girls ( $p < .001$ ).  
41 Mothers of children with externalizing disorders were younger than those with no disorder ( $p < .05$ ) but there was  
42 no difference in their education ( $p = .68$ ). The families of children with externalising disorders experienced more  
43 family adversity during pregnancy than those with no disorder ( $p < .001$ ). With respect to specific disorders,  
44 children diagnosed with “pure ADHD” were more likely to have been born before 37 weeks than those without  
45 ( $p < .001$ ). Mothers of children with “pure ODD / CD” and “ADHD plus ODD / CD” were more likely to continue to  
46 smoke throughout pregnancy ( $p < .001$ ).  
47  
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50  
51 *Dietary factors and externalising disorders:* Neither maternal nor child intake of omega-3 nor breastfeeding  
52 predicted “pure ADHD” in the unadjusted analyses ( $p \geq .38$ ; odds ratios and confidence intervals in Table 2).  
53  
54 Formula-feeding (never breastfed) predicted “pure ODD/CD” in the unadjusted analyses ( $p < .001$ ) but after  
55 adjustment for confounding factors, there was no evidence for formula feeding as a predictor ( $p > .40$ ).  
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## Dietary omega-3 and childhood externalising behaviour

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3 There was weak evidence that maternal omega-3 ( $p = .01$ ), formula feeding ( $p = .02$ ) and the interaction between the  
4 two ( $p = 0.18$ ) predicted the combination of ADHD plus ODD/CD in the unadjusted model but after adjustment for  
5 confounding factors these relationships disappeared ( $p > .34$ ).  
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7

**DISCUSSION**

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10 This study aimed to investigate the ability of maternal intake of omega-3 during pregnancy and child intake of  
11 omega-3 at 3 years to predict externalising disorders in middle childhood. Children with externalising disorders  
12 were more likely to be boys and to be born into families where there was strong evidence of relatively high levels  
13 of family adversity during pregnancy. Children diagnosed with ADHD were more likely to have been born before  
14 37 weeks.  
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16  
17 Conclusions from previous research regarding the effects of omega-3 on externalising disorders have been  
18 inconsistent: some studies report positive effects of omega-3 [2, 3] while other work has been less conclusive [5].  
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21 Our results showed no overall benefit of omega-3 intake by either mother or child on the diagnosis of externalising  
22 disorders after adjustment. There were no associations between omega-3 intake and diagnosis of “pure ADHD” in  
23 this British cohort, consistent with some [4] but not other research [19]. Children who were breastfed had a lower  
24 rate of “pure ODD/CD” than children who were formula-fed before adjustment [20]. Similarly, when maternal  
25 intake of omega-3 was low during pregnancy and the baby was subsequently formula-fed, there was an increased  
26 risk of ADHD plus ODD/CD in unadjusted analyses. However, the predictive ability of these variables  
27 disappeared after adjustment, perhaps because the unadjusted relationships were a function of residual  
28 confounding eg breast-feeding may be easier to manage for mothers who, for example, are not depressed or have  
29 more time to spend supporting and supervising their children. Alternatively, we may have over-adjusted in some  
30 circumstances and the unadjusted relationships may be accurate eg omega-3 intake may be reduced in families  
31 exposed to adversity and reduced intake during pregnancy may be associated with an increased risk of  
32 oppositional and / or conduct disorders in childhood. In order to examine this hypothesis, the effects of omega-3  
33 on such disorders should be further investigated. We are unable to rule out the possibility that other processes (not  
34 measured here) may influence the risk of externalising disorders in childhood [21] eg inefficient metabolism as  
35 opposed to a dietary deficiency of omega-3 [4] or the ratio of different fatty acids to one another [11] or variation  
36 in the nutritional content of breast-milk [22]. Further research is needed to improve our understanding of the  
37 influence of absolute levels of nutrients in diet on externalizing behaviours, particularly ADHD.  
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40 While the strengths of the study are large sample size and observer-rated psychiatric diagnoses, there are  
41 limitations. Only 59% of the original cohort provided DAWBA data and fewer than 5% of this group met the  
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3 criteria for diagnosis of an externalising disorder. Given the lack of teacher data on 34% of the sample, we will  
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5 have misclassified some children as having no disorder [17], reducing our chances of detecting statistical  
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7 associations. Other work on this cohort [23] has suggested that a lower proportion of families remaining in the  
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9 study have children with externalising disorders compared to those who dropped out but bias will only occur if the  
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11 association between omega-3 and externalising symptoms varies between responders and non-responders and we  
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13 have no reason to believe that this is the case. In statistical simulations this type of selection bias has been shown  
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15 to attenuate rather than alter the relationship between predictors [24].

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17 We were restricted to using dietary intake of omega-3 FAs and breast-feeding practice as proxies for physiological  
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19 measures of omega-3. This is problematic regarding the transfer of omega-3 via breast-milk given that the omega-  
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21 3 content of breast-milk can vary ten-fold [22]. Similarly, other factors in human milk may affect  
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23 neurodevelopment so studies such as this, comparing breast- and formula-fed infants, cannot completely resolve  
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25 the role of EFAs in development. Also, the dichotomisation of each of these variables may have resulted in a loss  
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27 of statistical power to detect differences between groups but given that the outcome of interest was diagnosis  
28  
29 rather than symptom counts, we believe that categorisation allows the possibility of capturing non-linear effects in  
30  
31 the relationship with externalising disorders.

32  
33 In conclusion, neither maternal nor child intake of omega-3 nor breastfeeding predicted any type of externalising  
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35 disorder after adjusting for social factors associated with diet and behaviour Our results are important to consider  
36  
37 in light of the current tendency to promote omega-3 as a possible treatment for ADHD-related problems [2]. If  
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39 studies do not adjust sufficiently for confounding factors such as family adversity and pre-term delivery then they  
40  
41 may misrepresent the relationship between externalising disorders and omega-3 [25]. Stronger evidence is required  
42  
43 from randomised control trials to clarify the role of omega-3 alone and in conjunction with other LC-PUFAs in  
44  
45 childhood externalising disorders.

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**ABBREVIATIONS**

EFA, essential fatty acid; CNS, central nervous system; LC-PUFA, long-chain polyunsaturated fatty acid; FA, fatty acid; IQ, intelligence quotient; ALSPAC, Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children; UK, United Kingdom; DAWBA, Development and Well-Being Assessment; ODD/CD, oppositional development disorder / conduct disorder; ADHD, attention-deficit hyperactive disorder; OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval; SES, socio-economic status; FAI, family adversity index; n-3, omega-3

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Table 1: Descriptive data for responders according to DSM-IV diagnosis (SD)<sup>a</sup>

	N (%)	Maternal age	Maternal education % O levels or less <sup>±</sup>	FAI <sup>§</sup> in pregnancy	% Still smoking in pregnancy	Child gender % male	Maternal n3 <sup>¶</sup> (32 weeks gestation) % Low intake <340g / week	% < 37 weeks gestation	% <2500g birth-weight	Whether breastfed % Never	Child n3 <sup>¶</sup> (3 years) % Low intake <280mg / week
No disorder	7654 (92.9)	29.0 (4.6)	58.3	1.1 (1.4)	15.2	50.1	78.3	4.8	4.5	22.2	49.6
Any disorder	364 (4.4)	28.2 (5.1)*	61.5	1.8 (1.9)***	24.2 ***	75.5 ***	82.2 *	7.2	5.7	32.2***	50.5
Pure ODD/CD	189 (2.3)	28.3 (5.0)*	61.4	1.9 (1.9)***	29.4***	68.6***	82.3 **	4.3	4.8	33.9***	57.1**
Pure ADHD	103 (1.3)	29.0 (5.1)	56.1	1.5 (1.8)***	14.4	81.6***	76.1	13.6***	8.7 *	26.1	48.9
ADHD plus ODD/CD	72 (0.9)	27.4 (5.2)*	72.3	2.1 (2.0)***	29.4**	88.6***	88.9 *	5.7	5.7	34.8*	47.5

<sup>a</sup> the total number of children in this table with externalising disorders only is 8018; 224 children from the complete sample of 8242 were diagnosed with an internalising disorder but these were excluded from all analyses.

<sup>±</sup> O levels: educational qualification taken at 16 years of age    <sup>§</sup> Family Adversity Index    <sup>¶</sup> n3 = omega-3 fatty acids

\* p<.05    \*\* p<.01    \*\*\* p<.001    (strength of evidence for difference from those with no disorder)

**Table 2: Odds ratios and 95% CI for omega-3 and breastfeeding factors in the prediction of DSM-IV externalizing behaviors**

DSM-IV diagnosis		Reference group	Unadjusted			Adjusted <sup>§</sup>		
			OR	95% CI	p	OR	95% CI	p
ODD/CD N = 189	Maternal n3	None	<b>1.73</b>	<b>1.03 – 2.90</b>	<b>0.04</b>	0.98	0.64 – 1.49	.92
	Child n3	None	1.62	0.92 – 2.85	0.09	1.39	0.99 – 1.96	.06
	Never breastfed		<b>1.83</b>	<b>1.30 – 2.56</b>	<b>&lt;.001</b>	1.16	0.57 – 2.36	.68
ADHD N = 103	Maternal omega-3 * breastfed	None*never	1.20	0.40 – 3.61	0.74	1.42	0.63 – 3.23	.40
	Maternal n3	None	1.17	0.60 – 2.28	0.65	0.89	0.53 – 1.49	.66
	Child n3	None	1.31	0.62 – 2.79	0.48	0.77	0.49 – 1.21	.25
	Never breastfed		1.24	0.77 – 1.98	0.38	0.83	0.32 – 2.17	.70
ADHD plus ODD/CD N = 72	Maternal omega-3 * breastfed	None*never	0.60	0.11 – 3.32	0.56	1.40	0.45 – 4.40	.56
	Maternal n3	None	<b>3.56</b>	<b>1.41 – 8.95</b>	<b>0.01</b>	1.41	0.67 – 2.98	.37
	Child n3	None	1.02	0.36 – 2.89	0.98	0.92	0.52 – 1.63	.78
	Never breastfed		<b>1.87</b>	<b>1.13 – 3.12</b>	<b>0.02</b>	1.76	0.55 – 5.59	.34
	Maternal omega-3 * breastfed	None*never	<b>2.06</b>	<b>1.13 – 3.73</b>	<b>.018</b>	0.99	0.26 – 3.79	.99

§ Adjustment factors: Maternal age and education level, family adversity (including maternal psychopathology, financial difficulties and standard of housing during pregnancy), gestational age, birthweight, breastfeeding and smoking

**Table 1: Descriptive data for responders vs. non-responders**

	Responders	Non-responders	p
	(N = 8242)	(N = 3098)	
Mean maternal age (SD)	29.0 (4.6)	26.7 (5.1)	<.001
Maternal education: O levels or less <sup>a</sup>	58%	76%	<.001
Home owner	82%	61%	<.001
Mean family adversity score (SD)	1.1 (1.4)	1.6 (1.8)	<.001
Still smoking in pregnancy	16%	29%	<.001
Gestational age <37 weeks	5%	15%	<.001
Birth weight <2500g	5%	8.4%	<.001
Never breastfed	23%	35%	<.001
Mean maternal intake (g) of omega-3 (SD)	1.4 (0.5)	1.3 (0.5)	<.001
Mean child intake (g) of omega-3 (SD)	0.51 (0.50)	0.51 (0.50)	.082
Gender of study child	51%	52%	.17

<sup>a</sup> In England and Wales, O levels are a national qualification taken at 16 years of age