2						
3	Incidence, prevalence, and global burden of autism spectrum disorder from 1990 to 2019					
4	across 204 countries					
5	Marco Solmi ^{1,2,3,4,5} *, Minjin Song ⁶ *, Dong Keon Yon ⁷ *, Seung Won Lee ⁸ *, Eric Fombonne ^{9,10} , Min Seo Kim ¹¹ ,					
6	Seoyeon Park ⁶ , Min Ho Lee ⁶ , Jimin Hwang ¹² , Roberto Keller ¹³ , Ai Koyanagi ^{14,15} , Louis Jacob ^{14,16} , Elena Dragioti ¹⁷ ,					
7	Lee Smith ¹⁸ , Christoph U Correll ^{19,20,21,22} , Paolo Fusar-Poli ^{4,23,24,25} , Giovanni Croatto ²⁶ , Andre F Carvalho ²⁷ , Jae Won					
8	Oh ²⁸ , San Lee ^{28,29} , Corentin J Gosling ^{30,31} , Keun-Ah Cheon ³² , Dimitris Mavridis ^{33,34} , Che-Sheng Chu ^{35,36,37} , Chih-Sung					
9	Liang ^{38,39} , Joaquim Radua ^{4,40,41} , Laurent Boyer ⁴² , Guillaume Fond ⁴² , Jae II Shin ^{43#} , Samuele Cortese ^{5,44,45}					
10	1 Department of Psychiatry, University of Ottawa, Ontario, Canada					
11	2 Department of Mental Health, The Ottawa Hospital, Ontario, Canada					
12	3 Ottawa Hospital Research Institute (OHRI) Clinical Epidemiology Program University of Ottawa Ottawa Ontario					
13 14	4 Early Psychosis: Interventions and Clinical-Detection (EPIC) Lab, Department of Psychosis Studies, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology, King's College London, London, UK					
15	5 Centre for Innovation in Mental Health (CIMH), School of Psychology, Faculty of Environmental and Life Sciences, University					
16	of Southampton, UK					
17	6 Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea Kyung Hee University College of Medicine					
18	7 Center for Digital Health, Medical Science Research Institute, Kyung Hee University College of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of					
19	Korea					
20 21	8 Department of Data Science, Sejong University College of Software Convergence, Seoul, South Korea9 Department of Psychiatry, Oregon Health & Science University, Portland, OR, USA					
22	10 Department of Pediatrics, Oregon Health & Science University, Portland, OR, USA					
23	11 Korea University College of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea					
24	12 Department of Epidemiology, Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, USA					
25	13 Adult Autism Center, Mental Health Department, Health Unit ASL Città di Torino, 10138 Turin, Italy					
26	14 Parc Sanitari Sant Joan de Déu/CIBERSAM, Universitat de Barcelona, Fundació Sant Joan de Déu, Sant Boi de Llobregat,					
27	08830 Barcelona, Spain					
28 29	15 ICREA, Pg. Lluis Companys 23, Barcelona, Spain 16 Faculty of Medicine, University of Versailles Saint-Quentin-en-Yvelines, Montigny-le-Bretonneux 78180, France					
30	17 Pain and Rehabilitation Centre, and Department of Health, Medicine and Caring Sciences, Linkoping University, SE-581 85					
31	Linkoping, Sweden					
32	18 Centre for Health, Performance, and Wellbeing, Anglia Ruskin University, Cambridge CB1 1PT, UK					
33	19 Department of Psychiatry, Zucker Hillside Hospital, Glen Oaks, NY, USA					
34 25	20 Department of Psychiatry and Molecular Medicine, Donald and Barbara Zucker School of Medicine at Hofstra/Northwell,					
35 36	Hempstead, NY, USA 21 Center for Psychiatric Neuroscience, Feinstein Institute for Medical Research, Manhasset, NY, USA					
37	22 Department of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Charité-Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Berlin, Germany					
38	23 Department of Brain and Behavioral Sciences, University of Pavia, Pavia, Italy					
39	24 OASIS service, South London and Maudsley NHS Foundation Trust, London, UK					
40	25 National Institute for Health Research, Maudsley Biomedical Research Centre, London, UK					
41	26 Neurosciences Department, University of Padua, Italy					
42 43	27 IMPACT (Innovation in Mental and Physical Health and Clinical Treatment) Strategic Research Centre, School of Medicine, Barwon Health, Deakin University, Geelong, VIC, Australia					
44	28 Department of Psychiatry, Yongin Severance Hospital, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Yongin, Republic of Korea					
45	29 Department of Psychiatry and Institute of Behavioral Science in Medicine, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul,					
46	Republic of Korea					
47	30 DysCo Lab, Paris Nanterre University, Nanterre, France					
48	31 Laboratoire de Psychopathologie et Processus de Santé, Université de Paris, Paris, France					
49 50	32 Division of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Department of Psychiatry, Severance Hospital, Institute of Behavioral Science in Medicine, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul, Korea					
50	33 Department of Primary Education, Evidence Synthesis Methods Team, University of Ioannina, Ioannina, Greece					
52	34 Faculté de Médecine, Paris Descartes University, Sorbonne Paris Cité, Paris, France					
53	35 Department of Psychiatry, Kaohsiung Veterans General Hospital, Kaohsiung 813, Taiwan					
54	36 Center for Geriatric and Gerontology, Kaohsiung Veterans General Hospital, Kaohsiung 813, Taiwan					

- 55 37 Graduate Institute of Medicine, College of Medicine, Kaohsiung Medical University, Kaohsiung 807, Taiwan
- 38 Department of Psychiatry, Beitou Branch, Tri-Service General Hospital, National Defense Medical Center, Taipei 11490,
 Taiwan
- 58 39 Graduate Institute of Medical Sciences, National Defense Medical Center, Taipei 11490, Taiwan
- 40 Imaging of Mood- and Anxiety-Related Disorders (IMARD) Group, Institut d'Investigacions Biomèdiques August Pi I Sunyer
- 60 (IDIBAPS), Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red de Salud Mental (CIBERSAM), Barcelona, Spain.
- 61 41 Department of Clinical Neuroscience, Centre for Psychiatric Research and Education, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden
- 62 42 AP-HM, Aix-Marseille University, CEReSS-Health Service Research and Quality of Life Center, Fondation FondaMental,
- 63 Marseille, France
- 64 43 Department of Paediatrics, Yonsei University College of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea
- 44 Clinical and Experimental Sciences (CNS and Psychiatry), Faculty of Medicine, University of Southampton, Southampton, UK
- 45 Division of Psychiatry and Applied Psychology, School of Medicine, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK.
- 67 * Contributed equally to the manuscript as first authors
- 68

69 #Corresponding author

- 70 Corespondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Dr. Jae Il Shin
- 71 Address: 50-1 Yonsei-ro, Seodaemun-gu, C.P.O. Box 8044, Department of Pediatrics, Yonsei University 72 College of Medicine Seoul 03722 Korea
- 72 College of Medicine, Seoul 03722, Korea
- 73 Tel.: +82-2-2228-2050; Fax: +82-2-393-9118; E-mail: shinji@yuhs.ac
- 74 75

76 Summary

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) substantially contributes to the burden of mental disorders. Improved 77 78 awareness and changes in diagnostic criteria of ASD may have influenced the diagnostic rates of ASD. However, while data on trends in diagnostic rates in some individual countries have been published, updated 79 80 estimates of diagnostic rate trends and ASD-related disability at the global level are lacking. Here, we used the 81 Global Burden of Diseases, Injuries, and Risk Factors Study data to address this gap, focusing on changes in prevalence, incidence, and disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) of ASD across the world. From 1990 to 82 83 2019, overall age-standardized estimates remained stable globally. Both prevalence and DALYs increased in countries with high socio-demographic index (SDI). However, the age-standardized incidence decreased in 84 85 some low SDI countries, indicating a need to improve awareness. The male/female ratio decreased between 1990 and 2019, possibly accounted for by increasing clinical attention to ASD in females. Our results suggest 86 87 that ASD detection in low SDI countries is suboptimal, and that ASD prevention/treatment in countries with high SDI should be improved considering the increasing prevalence of the disorder. Additionally, growing 88 attention is being paid to ASD diagnosis in females, who might have been left behind by ASD epidemiologic 89 90 and clinical research previously. ASD burden estimates are underestimated as GBD does not account for 91 mortality in ASD.

93 Introduction

Neurodevelopmental disorders affect individuals' lives since very early developmental stages[1] and 94 95 contribute substantially to the burden of mental disorders.[2, 3] Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) is a group of 96 neurodevelopmental disorders defined by persistent deficits in social communication and interaction in 97 multiple contexts, as well as by restricted, repetitive patterns of behaviour, interests, or activities, and hyper-98 or hyporeactivity to sensory input or unusual interest in sensory aspects of the environment. ASD symptoms 99 usually begin in early life,[4] but may become more evident when social demands exceed individuals' 100 capacities or alternative learning coping strategies, causing clinically significant impairment in functioning.[5] Data on the prevalence and socio-economic impact of ASD have been reported for a number of individual 101 102 countries. For instance, a recent, large register-based cohort study in Denmark, including 6,989,627 residents, showed a prevalence of 400 per 100,000 for ASD.[6] ASD ranked 5th for males and 8th for females among 103 104 mental and substance use disorders in terms of years lived with disability (YLD), and it accounted for the bulk 105 of disability in childhood and adolescence. In contrast, the disabilities associated with schizophrenia and personality disorders were more evident in adulthood.[6] Notably, both ASD and schizophrenia were directly 106 107 associated with disease-specific health loss proportion (HeLP, average proportion of health loss that 108 individuals experience because of a specific mental or substance disorder, and additional comorbid mental and 109 substance disorders) (77% for ASD, 89% for schizophrenia), as opposed to other disorders where comorbidities accounted for the vast majority of HeLP.[6] In the European project "Autism Spectrum 110 Disorders In Europe (ASDEU)", the prevalence of ASD in children aged 7-9 ranged from 476 per 100,000 in 111 112 South-Eastern France to 3,130 per 100,000 in Iceland.[7] In another study from India, ASD was estimated to have a prevalence of 400 per 100,000 in 2017, and in terms of disability-adjusted life years (DALYs; an index 113 of overall disease burden), ASD ranked 7th among the mental disorders.[8] In Iran, the weighted ASD 114 prevalence estimate for 6–18 years old subjects was as low as 63 to 160 per 100,000, in China 177 per 100,000, 115 116 lower than less recent estimates from United Arab Emirates (290 per 100,000 for 0-14 year children), and 117 Israel (480 per 100,000 for 1–12 year children) [9–11], whilst large values were estimated in Bangladesh, 2009 (842 per 100,000) and Sri Lanka, 2009 (1,070 per 100,000), and very large values in Lebanon, 2016 (1,530 118 per 100,000) and South Korea, 2011 (2,640 per 100,000).[12] In the United States of America, the prevalence 119 120 of ASD was estimated at 340 per 100,000 in 1996.[13]

Findings across numerous countries consistently showed higher prevalence and disability in males than females.[6, 8, 13] In relation to time trends, different figures have been reported for individual countries, e.g., in India there was negligible age-standardized changes in ASD prevalence and DALYs from 1990-2017 (<1% prevalence change, no significant DALY changes),[8] as opposed to substantial prevalence increase in Sweden (250% among 0-17 years old from 2001 (420 per 100,000) to 2011 (1,440 per 100,000), and specifically 700% increase in children/adolescents without intellectual disability).[14]

Regarding global estimates, in 2010, there were around 52 million estimated cases of ASD worldwide (prevalence of 760 per 100,000, 58 DALYs per 100,000).[15] Furthermore, the global prevalence of ASD in children <5 years old, across countries, has been estimated at 723 per 100,000 in 2016.[16, 17]

While data on prevalence, prevalence trends, and ASD-related disability have been published for individual countries or globally, an updated and detailed analysis of ASD prevalence, prevalence trends over the past decades, incidence and disability worldwide across the lifespan, is currently lacking.[15, 16] Additionally, there is a need to better understand ASD prevalence and disability according to sex, country, and sociodemographic index (SDI).

The Global Burden of Diseases, Injuries, and Risk Factors Study (GBD) 2019 offers a unique opportunity to estimate the prevalence and disability of over 360 conditions[18] including ASD, across over 204 countries and territories (with first administrative level disaggregation for 22 countries), with over 3.5 billion estimates of health and health system measures from 281,586 different sources, available separately per sex and age group, measured on common standardized indicators[19], from 1990 to 2019. Drawing on the GBD 2019, the aim of this study was to provide the most comprehensive report to date on ASD global prevalence and disability across the past 30 years.

Assessing trends in diagnostic rates is particularly relevant in the light of concerns on the possible impact on administrative prevalence and incidence driven by changes in nosographic systems. For instance, changes in the diagnostic criteria of ASD from the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM)-IV to DSM-5 have led to a decrease of 13-20% in its estimated prevalence within the same dataset.[20, 21] Some experts suggest the DSM-5 criteria are more stringent than DSM-IV,[22] and some children meeting the criteria under the DSM-IV-TR pervasive developmental disorder (PDD) will not meet DSM-5 ASD criteria but might meet the social communication disorder (SCD). Individuals with significant language deficits, high

overall levels of functioning, low levels to no restrictive repetitive behaviors, and individuals who barely meet 149 PDD-not otherwise specified (NOS) criteria are at greatest risk for such shifting.[20, 21] However, increased 150 151 awareness on ASD or exposure to potential environmental risk factors - such as pollutants/pesticides (even if their role is no clear yet),[23] may have contributed to the higher administrative prevalence of the disorder, at 152 least in some countries. Therefore, a comprehensive assessment of ASD prevalence and disability at the global 153 level over the past decades is needed to estimate if and to what extent these potential factors have led to actual 154 155 differences over time and across regions. Based on the available literature, we hypothesized that differences 156 of prevalence and burden of ASD across countries exist, and that these differences are influenced by SDI. Understanding the geographic and socioeconomic variation in the disease burden of ASD can inform national 157 and regional healthcare policies contributing to appropriate allocation of public resources. 158

159

160 Methods

161 Data source

The GBD 2019 Results Database is publicly available through the Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network website (<u>http://ghdx.healthdata.org</u>). In GBD 2019, ASD is defined based on DSM (III, III-R, IV, IV-TR, 5), ICD (9, 10), Chinese Classification of Mental Disorders (CCMD), or diagnosed by a clinician using established tools. Additional information on the methodology is available in the supplementary methods in the appendix (Tables S1-S4, Figures S1-S8).[18]

GBD 2019 estimates provide information about incidence, prevalence, mortality, years of life lost (YLLs), 167 168 YLDs, and DALYs related to 369 diseases and injuries.[18] Data are provided for 204 countries and territories, grouped into 21 regions and seven super-regions, and extracted from censuses, household surveys, civil 169 170 registration and vital statistics, disease registries, health service use, air pollution monitors, satellite imaging, disease notifications, and other sources. GBD collects data from a total of 86,249 sources, including 19,354 171 172 sources reporting deaths, 31,499 sources reporting incidence, 19,773 sources reporting prevalence, and 26,631 sources reporting other metrics. Diseases and injuries analyzed by the GBD are organized into four levels of 173 hierarchy from Level 1 to Level 4. Level 1 includes three broad causes for death and disability (i.e., 174 175 communicable, maternal, and nutritional diseases; non-communicable diseases; and injuries). With increasing

granularity, Level 2 includes 22 different causes, Level 3 encompasses 174 different causes, and Level 4
provides the most specific estimates related to 301 specific causes.[18]

178

179 Measures

We extracted prevalence, incidence, and DALYs with their uncertainty interval (95%UI, 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles)[18] for ASD, globally, and by region, income group, and sex, from 1990 to 2019. Each estimate is presented both as raw measure and as age-standardized rate (appendix Table S5-10).

DALY, an index of overall disease burden, is defined as the sum of YLLs and YLDs. One DALY represents the loss of equivalent one year of full health.[24] YLL is an indicator of premature mortality, which is based on a maximum observed life expectancy as a reference. It is calculated by multiplying the number of deaths due to a condition and standard life expectancy at the age of death. YLD reflects the burden of illness on quality of life, and is based on standardized disability weights for each health state. It is calculated by multiplying the number of incident cases in the population, the "disability" weight of the specific condition, and the average duration of the case until remission or death. Hence, death is a key outcome to estimate disability.

Estimates are provided according to SDI, which is determined by income per capita, educational attainment, and total fertility rate in women <25 years old.[18] SDI categories are low (<0.46), low-middle (0.46-0.61), middle (0.61-0.69), high-middle (0.69-0.80), high (>0.80). SDI of 204 GBD countries and territories are provided in appendix Table S11. SDI centrality and dispersion measures as well SDI levels across countries are reported in appendix Figure S8.

195

196 Statistical analyses

GBD assembles clinical informatic data including hospital data, ambulatory (including general practitioner)
visits, and health insurance claims. For each GBD causes (diseases), ratios of non-primary to primary diagnosis
rate, and ratios of outpatient to inpatient care are extracted from several regions.[18] The log of the ratios are
modelled by age and sex using MR-BRT (Meta-Regression-Bayesian Regularised Trimmed), the Bayesian
meta-regression tool.[18]

GBD uses three main modelling strategies including Cause of Death Ensemble model (CODEm), Spatiotemporal Gaussian process regression, and DisMod-MR 2.1 to generate estimates of each measure of interest by age, sex, location, and year.[18] Details of each model are provided in Supplementary methods.

205

206 Results

207 Prevalence, incidence, and DALYs estimates for every five years from 1990-2019 are reported in Table 1. 208 Since in GBD YLL is zero in ASD, YLDs and DALYs values are identical. The same estimates for each year 209 from 1990 to 2019 are also reported (appendix Table S5). GBD 2019 estimated that in 2019, over 28 million people were affected by ASD globally, corresponding to an age-standardized prevalence of ASD of 0.37%, or 210 211 369.39 per 100,000 (95%UI=305.95-441.19). Incident cases were 603,790 globally, corresponding to an agestandardized incidence of 9.32 (95%UI=7.75-11.12) per 100,000. In terms of change from 1990 to 2019, the 212 213 raw number of individuals with ASD increased approximately from an estimate of 20 million (95%UI=16.9-24.2) to over 28 million (95%UI=23.5-33.8), corresponding to a relative increase of 39.3% in terms of the 214 global prevalence of ASD (appendix Table S5). However, corresponding changes in age-standardized 215 prevalence were negligible at the global level. Similarly, changes in both raw and age-standardized incidence 216 217 estimates were also negligible at the global level.

In 2019, ASD was associated with 4,306,615 DALYs globally, corresponding to an age-standardized estimate
of 56·26 DALYs per 100,000 (95%UI=36·82-81·52). As for prevalence, raw DALYs largely increased by
38·66%, but the change in age-standardized DALYs was negligible.

221 However, ASD was associated with different prevalence and disability figures in specific countries. Estimates 222 were also different across countries according to different SDI strata (Table 2). As shown in Figure 1, age-223 standardized prevalence and DALYs of ASD were particularly high in countries with high SDI. In 2019, in 40 high SDI countries, the ASD age-standardized prevalence was 579.32 per 100,000 (95%UI=485.3-684.53), 224 225 corresponding to an increase of 7.36% since 1990. Similarly, in high SDI countries, age-standardized incidence rate was 14.55 per 100,000 (95%UI=12.26-17.12), corresponding to a 9.02% increase from 1990. In 33 low 226 SDI countries, the ASD prevalence remained overall stable, while in 2019 age-standardized incidence was 227 8.37 per 100,000 (95%UI=6.91-10), corresponding to an 8.57% decrease from 1990. Age-standardized 228

229 DALYs increased by 7.23% from 1990-2019 in high SDI countries (in 2019 88.19 per 100,000, 95%UI=57.85-

230 126.31), while age-standardized DALYs remained substantially unchanged in low SDI countries.

231 Geographical variability of ASD prevalence and disability is shown in appendix Figure S3-4. The largest increase in age-standardized DALY occurred in the GBD high-income super-region, mainly from 2005 to 232 2010. Estimates of prevalence, incidence, and DALYs by GBD region in 1990 and 2019 are reported in 233 234 appendix Table S6. The largest age-standardized prevalence increase from 1990-2019 occurred in North 235 America (high income) (21.62%, 95%UI=18.81-24.34), with a homogeneous trend in incidence (20.87%) 236 increase, 95%UI=18·1-23·61), and DALYs (21·21% increase, 95%UI=18·17-24·38). In 2019, the highest age-237 standardized prevalence and DALYs were found in high-income Asia Pacific, high-income North America, and Western Europe (appendix Figure S5-6). Across 204 GBD countries and territories, SDI and age-238 239 standardized DALYs were significantly correlated (appendix Figure S7). For instance, Somalia and Afghanistan had low SDI and DALYs (SDI=0.081, DALYs=57.45 per 100,000 for Somalia, SDI=0.343, 240 DALYs=43.4 per 100,000 for Afghanistan) of ASD. The UK had the highest age-standardized DALYs (112.29 241 per 100,000) among the high SDI counties (0.843). Interestingly, Taiwan showed the lowest DALYs (33.31 242 243 per 100,000) although it has a high SDI (0.868). Prevalence, incidence, and DALYs in 1990 and 2019 for each 244 GBD country are reported in appendix Table S10.

Both prevalence and DALYs remained >3 times higher in males than females during the last 30 years, but the male to female ratio (both number ratio, and age-standardized rate ratio) progressively decreased from 1990 to 2019 (Figure 2, appendix Figure S1). Yearly figures in males and females are reported in appendix Table S9. Prevalence, incidence, and DALYs in 2019 across GBD regions for males and females separately are available in appendix Table S7.

The male to female ratio of ASD prevalence and DALYs was stable across age groups as well, with the number ratio decreasing in older age groups due to longer life-expectancy for women, but with the age-standardized rate ratio increasing, due to more undiagnosed women than men earlier in the observation period (Figure 3, appendix Figure S2). Prevalence, incidence, and DALYs across age groups for males and females separately in 2019 are available in appendix Table S8.

256 Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the first study estimating prevalence, prevalence rates trends and disability related
to ASD worldwide over the past three decades.

259 We found that both raw prevalence and disability related to ASD have increased over the last 30 years globally (1990-2019), but that the corresponding age-standardized figures have remained overall stable globally. The 260 lack of material change in global age-standardized estimates can be misleading. In fact, the age-standardized 261 prevalence and disability related to ASD increased in high SDI countries, while it remained stable or decreased 262 263 in low SDI countries. The increase in raw numbers is a combination of the increased age-standardized estimates in high SDI countries and the number of total population in low SDI countries, whose age-standardized 264 estimates are stable (Table 2). Over the past three decades, relatively more females were diagnosed with ASD, 265 266 despite the challenges in diagnosing ASD among high-functioning females due to camouflage or co-occurring 267 internalized symptoms.[25] Yet, males remained around three times more likely to receive an ASD diagnosis 268 globally in 2019. The increase in the global raw prevalence of ASD is consistent with findings previously 269 published at a local level, across different high SDI countries. For instance, in Japan, the cumulative incidence of ASD has been rising from 2009 to 2016 nationwide.[26] In Denmark, the ASD incidence has also increased 270 271 both in youth and adults.[27]

272 There are at least two possible factors concomitantly contributing to such trends. First, certain risk factors for 273 ASD[28] might have increased over time, resulting in increased rates of ASD. For example, in a recent umbrella review pooling evidence from 46 meta-analyses of observational studies, reporting on 67 factors 274 275 putatively associated with 544,212 cases of ASD, credibility of evidence was graded as convincing for maternal age >35 years old (31% increased risk), maternal chronic hypertension (48% increased odds), 276 277 maternal gestational hypertension (37% increased odds), and maternal overweight before or during pregnancy 278 (28% increased odds).[2, 29] Interestingly, among these risk factors, there is evidence of increased global rates 279 in advanced maternal age from the UK, [30] China, [31] South Korea, [32] and Greece. [33] Also, a report from 280 GBD 2019 showed that hypertensive disorders during pregnancy have increased by almost 11% from 1990 to 2019, from a raw incidence of 162.96 per 100,000 in 1990 to 180.76 per 100,000 in 2019.[34] Also, the highest 281 282 figures of maternal hypertensive disorders emerged for older maternal age groups.[34] Even maternal obesity 283 has increased over the last decades. For instance, in the UK, from 1990 to 2004, maternal obesity increased

from 9,900 per 100,000 to 16,000 per 100,000, and up to a projected 22,000 per 100,000 in 2010 if the upward trend would persist.[35] Similar figures emerged according to nationally representative samples including 619,323 births between 1989 and 2007, again from the UK, describing an increase in first trimester maternal obesity prevalence from 7,600 per 100,000 to 15,600 per 100,000.[35] Similarly, in US, the proportion of women aged 20-39 years with BMI more than 30 kg/m² increased from less than 10,000 per 100,000 to 31,800 per 100,000 between 1970s and 2011.[36] Obesity has doubled in the US from 2000 to 2018.[37]

290 Second, the increase in the prevalence and related burden of ASD might be due to increased screening and 291 diagnostic capacity in high SDI countries. ASD diagnostic attention has extended into adulthood,[27] and 292 persons previously misdiagnosed with psychosis ortual disability or personality disorders now receive an ASD 293 diagnosis.[38] Also, services offering support and early detection of ASD might have expanded over previous years in high SDI countries, with subsequently improved capacity of early diagnosis. [26, 27] In 2006, the 294 295 American Academy of Pediatrics recommended screening all children for ASD during routine paediatrician 296 visits at 18 and 24 months of age, which parallels the main increase of age-standardized DALY in the GBD high-income super region from 2005-2010.[39] Also, the hypothesis of increased prevalence due to increased 297 298 screening and diagnostic capacity has been confirmed by some initial reports showing increased service use of children with ASD in recent years.[17, 40, 41] Additionally, data from the ASDEU [42] study in Italy show 299 that ASD prevalence estimate increased from 799 per 100,000 to 1,150 per 100,000 depending on source of 300 301 data, with real-world registries underestimating prevalence as opposed to studies based on ad-hoc screening 302 tools.[42, 43] ASDEU data also showed that ASD prevalence estimation was sensitive to the effects of local 303 clinical practices and investment in diagnostic training of local teams. For instance, in France, the use of the 304 national classification of psychiatric disorders historically led to a more restrictive use of ASD diagnosis. In 305 contrast, the increasing trend observed in South-Western France was likely related to the investment of 306 specialized teams, even though the prevalence of ASD in South-Eastern France was still overall low due to a 307 paucity of early diagnosis and specific management structures of ASD. In Iceland, the number of teams that 308 formally diagnose ASD has increased since 2010, in which contributed to particularly high prevalence compared to the other countries. [44] 309

310 In some high-income countries, a range of benefits are provided to families with children with a formal diagnosis of ASD, which is likely to raise the detection of ASD. For instance, in UK, many children with 311 312 ASD are qualified for disability living allowance (DLA), claiming carer's allowance or child tax credit. [45] 313 On the other hand, some high SDI countries, especially Taiwan, showed lower prevalence and disease burden compared to high-income Western countries. These low estimates are likely due to several reasons; 314 (1) most studies in Asia only included special school population, overlooking the mainstream school 315 population; (2) most studies in China have not used contemporary screening and diagnostic methods.[46] 316 317 Taiwan had even lower disease burden of ASD compared to China, likely due to the lack of standardized methods for estimating the prevalence of ASD. Indeed, in a systematic review, Hong Kong and Taiwan 318 319 showed a more than 200-fold difference among reports from multiple registry systems, and there must be 320 substantial methodological differences to result in such a huge variation. [47]

However, globally, ASD is still inadequately addressed by current mental health services and organizations. 321 322 For instance, in the United States of America, less than half of mental health facilities provide specific 323 behavioural treatments, and only around one-third of these facilities accept new cases with ASD.[48] 324 Geographical insights from global reports of risk factors for ASD are also valuable in interpreting changes in ASD figures in low SDI. For instance, if certain risk factors for ASD have increased, it would be surprising 325 326 not to see a corresponding increase in ASD, unless major improvements have been implemented in other aspects of ASD prevention, which is reasonably unlikely in low SDI countries. Hence, since maternal 327 hypertensive disorders have largely increased in low SDI countries,[34] the low prevalence ASD figures in 328 329 low SDI countries might be interpreted as a lack of proper screening and diagnostic services for ASD. This study has some limitations. First, GBD 2019 estimates were based on mathematical models, and where 330 evidence was not available, data were imputed. Further efforts are required to reflect all disease burden. In 331 332 our study, deaths and YLLs could not be estimated for ASD in spite of the known premature mortality 333 associated with medical comorbidities.[49] Indeed, among mental disorders listed in the 2019 GBD study, 334 deaths and YLLs were only calculated for anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa, as these were the only 335 mental disorders considered by the GBD group as directly underlying causes of death. For mental disorders 336 for which the cause of death is another disease or injury, such as suicide, YLLs and deaths was not

considered to fully reflect all premature mortality. A method in order to estimate the proportion of premature
deaths from those indirect causes is not yet available for current estimation of YLLs.[50] While GBD 2019
provides the most comprehensive and updated sources of estimates of burden of diseases to date, burden
estimates arelikely underestimated.

Second, while raw prevalence, incidence, and burden of ASD have increased in the last 30 years, global agestandardized estimates did not, which can be a misleading results if finer grained results split by SDI group are not considered. Also, as the vast majority of cases of ASD have onset in childhood, the age-standardized estimates of ASD are less relevant than when disorders affecting older strata of the population are under investigation.[51, 52]

Third, as suggested by others,[52] the DSM/ICD algorithms for ASD are only guiding principles in order to organize available information from different data sources and informants. Such algorithms are crucial since caseness based on 'scoring above/below threshold' results are also insufficient.[52] Hence prevalence and incidence estimates might have been influenced by the ASD definition criteria across different sources and the change of criteria from DSM-IV to DSM-5.

351 Also, we do not report prevalence, incidence and burden of ASD by intellectual disability levels, despite the 352 previous report that YLDs of intellectual disability levels constitutes DALY of ASD.[18] Lastly, multiple 353 studies have shown that the presence of co-occurring problems of ASD including ADHD, could diminish the performance of diagnostic algorithms of ASD.[53-57] GBD 2019 took the disability weights for the sequela 354 355 of ASD for intellectual disability into account, but methods to make dependent comorbidity corrections 356 computationally feasible are still under development.[18] Current GBD database provides the prevalence, 357 incidence, and YLDs of ASD according to six intellectual disability levels; ASD with no, borderline, mild, moderate, and profound intellectual disability. Among 167 input sources, only 19 studies that reported 358 359 information on the IQ level were used in the meta-analysis to calculate the severity splits by intellectual 360 disability.[18] In the upcoming studies, those sequelae can also be taken into account with more input data and modified classification criteria since DSM-5 classifies intellectual disability into four levels.[5] 361

Alongside its limitations, there are also strengths of the current study. In epidemiological studies of ASD, there is no uniform approach to case definition across published studies. For example, surveys of large national registrations or administrative databases usually result in a downward bias, and surveys that rely on parent report in a household survey often overestimate prevalence.[52] One of the strengths of the GBD 2019 is that its estimates with known biases were adjusted or crosswalked for alternative definitions. For instance, estimates of autism rather than of ASD, general population surveys without additional case finding, record report, and review of record notes, were adjusted (appendix Table S2, Table S4).[18]

Additionally, consistent with previous epidemiological surveys of ASD,[52] there were very few studies from low SDI countries as classified by the World Bank 2020. GBD 2019 also utilized data inputs for ASD from 34 countries. However, GBD 2019 used an integrated modelling approach to estimate not only the epidemiological parameters for regions with available data, but also for the countries and territories, as well as regions in which sufficient data were not available.[18]

In summary, results of the present study show that raw ASD prevalence and related burden have increased 374 375 over the last 30 years in high SDI countries, without concomitant large improvement of management strategies for the disorder (even though there has been progress over the last 30 years), which led to increased disability. 376 377 In low SDI countries, suboptimal detection strategies likely led to an absence of increase or even a decreased prevalence. Insufficient prevention strategies as well as changes in health services organizations in high (and 378 379 possibly also in low) SDI countries likely contributed to the increased incidence of ASD. Overall, results of this study call for more resources to be allocated to detect ASD in low SDI countries and to prevent ASD in 380 381 high SDI countries, as well as to decrease illness burden of ASD globally. ASD burden estimates in GBD are 382 likely underestimated.

383

- 384 Acknowledgments
- 385 Not applicable

386

387 Authors' contributions

All authors contributed and approved the study's protocol. MS created the first draft of the manuscript. MS,
DY and SL analysed data. MS, JS, and SC provided overall guidance. All authors read, edited, and approved
the final version of the manuscript.

392 Conflict of interest statements

MS received honoraria/has been consultant for Angelini, Lundbeck. CUC has been a consultant and/or advisor 393 394 to or has received honoraria from: AbbVie, Acadia, Alkermes, Allergan, Angelini, Aristo, Axsome, Damitsa, Gedeon Richter, Hikma, IntraCellular Therapies, Janssen/J&J, Karuna, LB Pharma, Lundbeck, MedAvante-395 396 ProPhase, MedInCell, Medscape, Merck, Mitsubishi Tanabe Pharma, Mylan, Neurocrine, Noven, Otsuka, 397 Pfizer, Recordati, Rovi, Servier, SK Life Science, Sumitomo Dainippon, Sunovion, Supernus, Takeda, Teva, 398 and Viatris. He provided expert testimony for Janssen and Otsuka. He served on a Data Safety Monitoring 399 Board for Lundbeck, Rovi, Supernus, and Teva. He has received grant support from Janssen and Takeda. He 400 received royalties from UpToDate and is also a stock option holder of LB Pharma. 401 402 **Data sharing** 403 Data are publicly available at the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME) website 404 (http://www.ghdx.healthdata.org/gbd-results-tool). 405 406 **Ethics committee approval** We followed the standard procedure recommended to register additional publication from GBD2019 project 407 408 after publication of capstone paper.[18] Our study was also approved by the Institutional Review Board at 409 Yonsei University Health System for the data use. 410 411

412 References

- Steinhausen HC, Jakobsen H. Incidence rates of treated mental disorders in childhood and
 adolescence in a complete nationwide birth cohort. J Clin Psychiatry. 2019;80.
- 415 2. Kim JY, Son MJ, Son CY, Radua J, Eisenhut M, Gressier F, et al. Environmental risk factors and
- biomarkers for autism spectrum disorder: an umbrella review of the evidence. The Lancet Psychiatry.
- 417 2019;6:590–600.
- 418 3. Kim JH, Kim JY, Lee J, Jeong GH, Lee E, Lee S, et al. Environmental risk factors, protective factors,
 419 and peripheral biomarkers for ADHD: an umbrella review. The Lancet Psychiatry. 2020;7:955–970.
- 420 4. Solmi M, Radua J, Olivola M, Croce E, Soardo L, Salazar de Pablo G, et al. Age at onset of mental
- 421 disorders worldwide: large-scale meta-analysis of 192 epidemiological studies. Mol Psychiatry. 2021.
 422 June 2021. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41380-021-01161-7.
- 423 5. American Psychiatric Association. Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th edition
 424 (DSM-V). Washington: American Psychiatric Association; 2013.
- Weye N, Santomauro DF, Agerbo E, Christensen MK, Iburg KM, Momen NC, et al. Register-based
 metrics of years lived with disability associated with mental and substance use disorders: a registerbased cohort study in Denmark. The Lancet Psychiatry. 2021;8:310–319.
- 428 7. Delobel-Ayoub M, Ehlinger V, Klapouszczak D, Maffre T, Raynaud J-P, Delpierre C, et al.
- 429 Socioeconomic Disparities and Prevalence of Autism Spectrum Disorders and Intellectual Disability.
 430 PLoS One. 2015;10:e0141964–e0141964.
- 431 8. Collaborators IS-LDBIMD. The burden of mental disorders across the states of India: the Global
 432 Burden of Disease Study 1990-2017. The Lancet Psychiatry. 2020;7:148–161.
- 433 9. Mohammadi MR, Ahmadi N, Khaleghi A, Zarafshan H, Mostafavi S-A, Kamali K, et al. Prevalence
- 434 of Autism and its Comorbidities and the Relationship with Maternal Psychopathology: A National
- 435 Population-Based Study. Arch Iran Med. 2019;22:546–553.
- 436 10. Eapen V, Mabrouk AA, Zoubeidi T, Yunis F. Prevalence of Pervasive Developmental Disorders in
 437 Preschool Children in the UAE. J Trop Pediatr. 2007;53:202–205.
- 438 11. Davidovitch M, Hemo B, Manning-Courtney P, Fombonne E. Prevalence and Incidence of Autism
 439 Spectrum Disorder in an Israeli Population. J Autism Dev Disord. 2013;43:785–793.

- Qiu S, Lu Y, Li Y, Shi J, Cui H, Gu Y, et al. Prevalence of autism spectrum disorder in Asia: A
 systematic review and meta-analysis. Psychiatry Res. 2020;284:112679.
- Yeargin-Allsopp M, Rice C, Karapurkar T, Doernberg N, Boyle C, Murphy C. Prevalence of Autism
 in a US Metropolitan Area. JAMA. 2003;289:49–55.
- Idring S, Lundberg M, Sturm H, Dalman C, Gumpert C, Rai D, et al. Changes in Prevalence of
 Autism Spectrum Disorders in 2001–2011: Findings from the Stockholm Youth Cohort. J Autism
 Dev Disord. 2015;45:1766–1773.
- Baxter AJ, Brugha TS, Erskine HE, Scheurer RW, Vos T, Scott JG. The epidemiology and global
 burden of autism spectrum disorders. Psychol Med. 2015;45:601–613.
- 16. Olusanya BO, Davis AC, Wertlieb D, Boo N-Y, Nair MKC, Halpern R, et al. Developmental
- disabilities among children younger than 5 years in 195 countries and territories, 1990–2016:
- 451 a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2016. Lancet Glob Heal. 2018;6:e1100–
 452 e1121.
- 17. Rubenstein E, Daniels J, Schieve LA, Christensen DL, Van Naarden Braun K, Rice CE, et al. Trends
 in Special Education Eligibility Among Children With Autism Spectrum Disorder, 2002-2010.
 Public Health Rep. 2018;133:85–92.
- 456 18. Vos T, Lim SS, Abbafati C, Abbas KM, Abbasi M, Abbasifard M, et al. Global burden of 369
- diseases and injuries in 204 countries and territories, 1990-2019: a systematic analysis for the Global
 Burden of Disease Study 2019. Lancet. 2020;396:1204–1222.
- Murray CJL, Abbafati C, Abbas KM, Abbasi M, Abbasi-Kangevari M, Abd-Allah F, et al. Five
 insights from the Global Burden of Disease Study 2019. Lancet. 2020;396:1135–1159.
- 461 20. Kim YS, Fombonne E, Koh Y-J, Kim S-J, Cheon K-A, Leventhal BL. A comparison of DSM-IV
- 462 pervasive developmental disorder and DSM-5 autism spectrum disorder prevalence in an
- 463 epidemiologic sample. J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2014;53:500–508.
- 464 21. Maenner MJ, Rice CE, Arneson CL, Cunniff C, Schieve LA, Carpenter LA, et al. Potential impact of
- 465 DSM-5 criteria on autism spectrum disorder prevalence estimates. JAMA Psychiatry. 2014;71:292–
- 466

300.

- 467 22. Bent CA, Barbaro J, Dissanayake C. Change in Autism Diagnoses Prior to and Following the
 468 Introduction of DSM-5. J Autism Dev Disord. 2017;47:163–171.
- 469 23. Tessari L, Angriman M, Díaz-Román A, Zhang J, Conca A, Cortese S. Association Between
- 470 Exposure to Pesticides and ADHD or Autism Spectrum Disorder: A Systematic Review of the
 471 Literature. J Atten Disord. 2022;26:48–71.
- 472 24. Kyu HH, Abate D, Abate KH, Abay SM, Abbafati C, Abbasi N, et al. Global, regional, and national
- disability-adjusted life-years (DALYs) for 359 diseases and injuries and healthy life expectancy
- 474 (HALE) for 195 countries and territories, 1990–2017: a systematic analysis for the Global
 475 Burden of Disease Study 2017. Lancet. 2018;392:1859–1922.
- 476 25. Lai M-C, Lombardo M V, Ruigrok AN, Chakrabarti B, Auyeung B, Szatmari P, et al. Quantifying
 477 and exploring camouflaging in men and women with autism. Autism. 2017;21:690–702.
- 478 26. Sasayama D, Kuge R, Toibana Y, Honda H. Trends in Autism Spectrum Disorder Diagnoses in Japan
 479 , 2009 to 2019. JAMA Netw Open. 2021;4:e219234.
- Schendel DE, Thorsteinsson E. Cumulative Incidence of Autism into Adulthood for Birth Cohorts in
 Denmark, 1980-2012. JAMA J Am Med Assoc. 2018;320:1811–1813.
- 482 28. Arango C, Dragioti E, Solmi M, Cortese S, Domschke K, Murray R, et al. Evidence-based atlas of
 483 risk and protective factors of mental disorders: meta-umbrella review. World Psychiatry. 2021;In
 484 press.
- 29. Dragioti E, Solmi M, Favaro A, Fusar-Poli P, Dazzan P, Thompson T, et al. Association of
 Antidepressant Use With Adverse Health Outcomes: A Systematic Umbrella Review. JAMA
 Psychiatry. 2019;76:1241–1255.
- Wu J, Morris JK. Trends in maternal age distribution and the live birth prevalence of Down's
 syndrome in England and Wales: 1938-2010. Eur J Hum Genet. 2013;21:943–947.
- 490 31. Li Y hua, Wang Y ping, Dai L, Zhou G xuan, Liang J, Li Q, et al. The trend of national advanced
 491 maternal age woman proportion in hospital-based surveillance. Zhonghua Yu Fang Yi Xue Za Zhi.
 492 2009;43:1073–1076.

- 493 32. Oh Y, Bae J. Impact of changes in maternal age and parity distribution on the increasing trends in the
 494 low birth weight and very low birth weight rates in South Korea, 2005-2015. J Prev Med Public Heal.
 495 2019;52:123–130.
- 496 33. Mousiolis A, Baroutis G, Papantoniou N, Costalos C, Antsaklis A. Maternal age demographic trends
 497 in Greece from 1980 to 2008. J Reprod Med. 2013;58:246–255.
- 498 34. Wang W, Xie X, Yuan T, Wang Y, Zhao F, Zhou Z, et al. Epidemiological trends of maternal
- hypertensive disorders of pregnancy at the global, regional, and national levels: a population-based
 study. BMC Pregnancy Childbirth. 2021;21:364.
- 35. Heslehurst N, Ells LJ, Simpson H, Batterham A, Wilkinson J, Summerbell CD. Trends in maternal
 obesity incidence rates, demographic predictors, and health inequalities in 36 821 women over a 15year period. BJOG An Int J Obstet Gynaecol. 2007;114:187–194.
- 36. Ogden CL, Carroll MD, Kit BK, Flegal KM. Prevalence of childhood and adult obesity in the United
 States, 2011-2012. JAMA. 2014;311:806–814.
- Malik VS, Willet WC, Hu FB. Nearly a decade on trends, risk factors and policy implications in
 global obesity. Nat Rev Endocrinol. 2020;16:615–616.
- Mazza M, Pino MC, Keller R, Vagnetti R, Attanasio M, Filocamo A, et al. Qualitative Differences in
 Attribution of Mental States to Other People in Autism and Schizophrenia: What are the Tools for
 Differential Diagnosis? J Autism Dev Disord. 2021. 2021. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10803-021-
- 511 05035-3.
- 512 39. Hyman SL, Levy SE, Myers SM, COUNCIL ON CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES
- 513 SONDANDBP. Identification, Evaluation, and Management of Children With Autism Spectrum
 514 Disorder. Pediatrics. 2020;145:e20193447.
- 515 40. Stuart EA, McGinty EE, Kalb L, Huskamp HA, Busch SH, Gibson TB, et al. Increased service use
 516 among children with autism spectrum disorder associated with mental health parity law. Health Aff.
 517 2017;36:337–345.
- 518 41. Toft G, Liu C, Menon J, Schendel D, Loss G, Ehrenstein V. Assessment of Educational Attainment
 519 and Employment Among Individuals With Autism Spectrum Disorder in Denmark. JAMA Pediatr.
 520 2021;175:601–608.

- 42. Narzisi A, Posada M, Barbieri F, Chericoni N, Ciuffolini D, Pinzino M, et al. Prevalence of Autism
 Spectrum Disorder in a large Italian catchment area: a school-based population study within the
 ASDEU project. Epidemiol Psychiatr Sci. 2018;29:e5–e5.
- 524 43. Chiarotti F, Venerosi A. Epidemiology of Autism Spectrum Disorders: A Review of Worldwide
 525 Prevalence Estimates Since 2014. Brain Sci. 2020;10:274.
- 526 44. Delobel-Ayoub M, Saemundsen E, Gissler M, Ego A, Moilanen I, Ebeling H, et al. Prevalence of
- Autism Spectrum Disorder in 7-9-Year-Old Children in Denmark, Finland, France and Iceland: A
 Population-Based Registries Approach Within the ASDEU Project. J Autism Dev Disord.
- **529** 2020;50:949–959.
- 530 45. National Autistic Society. Benefits for autistic children. Natl Autistic Soc. 2020.
- https://www.autism.org.uk/advice-and-guidance/topics/benefits-and-money/benefits/benefits-youcan-get/benefits-for-autistic-children. Accessed 28 March 2022.
- 533 46. Sun X, Allison C, Wei L, Matthews FE, Auyeung B, Wu YY, et al. Autism prevalence in China is
 534 comparable to Western prevalence. Mol Autism. 2019;10:7.
- Wan Y, Hu Q, Li T, Jiang L, Du Y, Feng L, et al. Prevalence of autism spectrum disorders among
 children in China: a systematic review. Shanghai Arch Psychiatry. 2013;25:70–80.
- 537 48. Cantor J, McBain RK, Kofner A, Stein BD, Yu H. Fewer than half of us mental health treatment
 538 facilities provide services for children with autism spectrum disorder. Health Aff. 2020;39:968–974.
- 49. Hirvikoski T, Mittendorfer-Rutz E, Boman M, Larsson H, Lichtenstein P, Bölte S. Premature
 mortality in autism spectrum disorder. Br J Psychiatry. 2016;208:232–238.
- 50. Global, regional, and national burden of 12 mental disorders in 204 countries and territories, 1990-
- 542 2019: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2019. The Lancet Psychiatry.
 543 2022;9:137–150.
- 544 51. Ahmad O Ben, Boschi Pinto C, Lopez AD. Age Standardization of Rates: A New WHO Standard.
 545 GPE Discuss Pap Ser No 31. 2001:10–12.
- 546 52. Fombonne E, MacFarlane H, Salem AC. Epidemiological surveys of ASD: advances and remaining
 547 challenges. J Autism Dev Disord. 2021. April 2021. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10803-021-05005-9.

- 53. Bastiaansen JA, Meffert H, Hein S, Huizinga P, Ketelaars C, Pijnenborg M, et al. Diagnosing autism
 spectrum disorders in adults: the use of Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule (ADOS) module 4.
 J Autism Dev Disord. 2011;41:1256–1266.
- 551 54. Grzadzinski R, Dick C, Lord C, Bishop S. Parent-reported and clinician-observed autism spectrum
- disorder (ASD) symptoms in children with attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD):
- implications for practice under DSM-5. Mol Autism. 2016;7:7.
- 55. Havdahl KA, Hus Bal V, Huerta M, Pickles A, Øyen A-S, Stoltenberg C, et al. Multidimensional
- Influences on Autism Symptom Measures: Implications for Use in Etiological Research. J Am Acad
 Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2016;55:1054-1063.e3.
- 557 56. Matsuo J, Kamio Y, Takahashi H, Ota M, Teraishi T, Hori H, et al. Autistic-like traits in adult
 patients with mood disorders and schizophrenia. PLoS One. 2015;10:e0122711.
- 559 57. Turban JL, van Schalkwyk GI. 'Gender Dysphoria' and Autism Spectrum Disorder: Is the Link Real?
 560 J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry. 2018;57:8-9.e2.

- 562 Figure Legends
- 563 Figure 1(a). Age-standardized prevalence rates (per 100 000) by location, both sexes combined, 2019 (b).
- 564 Age-standardized DALY rates (per 100 000) by location, both sexes combined, 2019
- 565 DALY=disability-adjusted life-year
- 566
- 567 Figure 2. Trends from 1990 to 2019 (a) in number and age-standardized prevalence rates (b) in male to
- 568 female (M/F) prevalence ratio of ASD at the global level.
- 569 Error bars indicate the 95% uncertainty level (UI) for prevalent cases. Shading indicates the 95% UI for the
- 570 age-standardized prevalence rate. ASD= autism spectrum disorder.
- 571
- 572 Figure 3. Age patterns by sex in 2019 of (a) the total prevalent cases and age-specific prevalence rate (b)
- 573 male to female (M/F) prevalence ratio of ASD at the global level.
- 574 Error bars indicate the 95% uncertainty level (UI) for prevalent cases. Shading indicates the 95% UI for the
- age-standardized prevalence rate. ASD= autism spectrum disorder

577 Table Legends

- Table 1. Global prevalence, Incidence, and DALYs attributable to ASD, by year (age-standardized
 rate per 100000)
- 580 Data in parentheses are 95% uncertainty intervals (UI). ASD=autism spectrum disorder, DALY=disability-
- 581 adjusted life-year.
- 582
- Table 2. Prevalence, Incidence, and DALYs of ASD in counts and age-standardized rates for both sexes
 combined in 1990 and 2019, with percentage change between 1990 and 2019 by SDI
- 585 Data in parentheses are 95% uncertainty intervals (UI). ASD=autism spectrum disorder, SDI=socio-
- 586 demographic index, DALY=disability-adjusted life-year.

	Prevalence	Incidence	DALYs
1990	372.85	9.17	56.69
1990	(309.07, 444.87)	(7.62, 10.92)	(37.01, 82.21)
1995	371.47	9.18	56.51
1993	(307.85, 443.26)	(7.63, 10.94)	(36.9, 82.09)
2000	370	9.21	56.3
2000	(306·49, 441·51)	(7.65, 10.97)	(36.75, 81.67)
2005	368.41	9.2	56.08
2005	(305.12, 439.59)	(7.64, 10.96)	(36.67, 81.38)
2010	371.08	9.3	56.52
2010	(307.6, 442.85)	(7.73, 11.09)	(36.98, 82.05)
2015	369.75	9.32	56.33
2013	(306·24, 441·47)	(7.75, 11.11)	(36.81, 81.65)
2019	369.39	9.32	56.26
2019	(305.95, 441.19)	(7.75, 11.12)	(36.82, 81.52)
Percent change between	-0.93	1.71	-0.76
1990 and 2019	(-1.29, -0.61)	(1.37, 2.04)	(-1.36, -0.16)

Table 1. Global prevalence, Incidence, and DALYs attributable to ASD, by year (agestandardized rate per 100000)

Data in parentheses are 95% uncertainty intervals. ASD=autism spectrum disorder, DALY=disability-adjusted life-year.

Table 2. Prevalence, Incidence, and DALYs of ASD in counts and age-standardize rates for both sexes combined in 1990 and 2019, with percentage change between1990 and 2019 by SDI

	1990		2019		Change in age-				
	Counts	Age-standardized Rate (per 100k)	Counts	Age-standardized Rate (per 100k)	standardized rates 1990 vs 2019 (%)				
Prevalence									
High SDI	4319310·91 (3613075·85, 5102134·39)	539.6 (451.69, 638.43)	5484191.81 (4587040.6, 6520432.4)	579.32 (485.3, 684.53)	7.36 (6.32, 8.44)				
High-middle SDI	4665416·45 (3863288·72, 5575606·19)	404.58 (334.91, 483.25)	5520270.68 (4566935.66, 6619212.44)	405.43 (335.95, 485.02)	0.21 (-0.13, 0.58)				
Middle SDI	5698915·84 (4667746·23, 6901112·08)	319.69 (262.68, 387.21)	7566751.79 (6220223.87, 9144157.82)	321.44 (264.5, 388.03)	0.55 (-0.13, 1.2)				
Low-middle SDI	3710773·55 (3057599·06, 4450284·58)	311.5 (257.2, 373.87)	5612896.33 (4621358.88, 6739732.39)	312.82 (258.23, 375.69)	0.42 (0.19, 0.71)				
Low SDI	1931430.44 (1592707, 2329439.65)	340.49 (280.16, 408.27)	4125396.41 (3401889.87, 4965501.49)	342.19 (281.4, 410.17)	0.5 (0.34, 0.67)				
Incidence									
High SDI	75696·18 (63921·23, 89058·3)	13·34 (11·27, 15·7)	72188.89 (60836.09, 84978.74)	14.55 (12.26, 17.12)	9.02 (7.85, 10.18)				
High-middle SDI	100983·35 (83515·13, 120116·77)	10.17 (8.41, 12.1)	77478.68 (64215.47, 92331.77)	10.26 (8.5, 12.22)	0.86 (0.48, 1.3)				
Middle SDI	173883.21 (143430.56, 208736.99)	8.41 (6.94, 10.1)	139285.52 (114749.5, 167031.97)	8.11 (6.69, 9.73)	-3.57 (-4.4, -2.78)				
Low-middle SDI	148418.01 (122088.01, 177305.72)	8.17 (6.72, 9.76)	137108.79 (112678.55, 163454.94)	8.07 (6.63, 9.62)	-1.25 (-1.59, -0.91)				
Low SDI	103576.67 (85506.15, 123644.4)	9.16 (7.56, 10.93)	151148.38 (124810.59, 180570.67)	8.37 (6.91, 10)	-8.57 (-8.97, -8.22)				
DALYs									
High SDI	654788.46 (429488.92, 932431.28)	82·24 (53·77, 117·37)	822966.75 (541875.32, 1175034.03)	88.19 (57.85, 126.31)	7.23 (5.77, 8.62)				
High-middle SDI	713058·64 (465214.03, 1032596.51)	61.81 (40.34, 89.52)	838198.35 (546345.01, 1211677.09)	62.11 (40.45, 89.8)	0.48 (-0.65, 1.63)				
Middle SDI	875926·92 (569680.49, 1284765·37)	48.84 (31.84, 71.55)	1155444.35 (754950.52, 1679972.43)	49.2 (32.13, 71.58)	0.74 (-0.38, 1.94)				
Low-middle SDI	566660.58 (372962.49, 827870.71)	47.17 (31.01, 68.47)	856770.97 (561754.28, 1245320.05)	47.6 (31.17, 69.08)	0.91 (-0.4, 2.14)				
Low SDI	293882.69 (191832.25, 427362.15)	51.31 (33.63, 74.49)	630884.75 (414558.98, 917939.77)	51.87 (34.07, 75.17)	1.08 (-0.18, 2.28)				

Data in parentheses are 95% uncertainty intervals (UI). ASD=autism spectrum disorder, SDI=socio-demographic index, DALY=disability-adjusted life-year.















