

1 Parental migraine in relation to migraine in offspring: Family linkage
2 analyses from the HUNT Study.

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23 **Key words:** Migraine, all headache, epidemiology

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27 Abstract

28 *Background:* Migraine is known to run in families. While some clinical studies have
29 indicated that migraine is disproportionately transmitted through the maternal line, this
30 has not been examined in a population-based setting.

31 *Methods:* We utilized a large, population-based cohort study from Norway, the HUNT
32 Study. Using a cross-sectional design, our sample consisted of 13,731 parents and 8,970
33 offspring. Logistic regression was used to calculate odds ratios (OR) with 95%
34 confidence intervals (CI) for active migraine and non-migrainous headache in offspring,
35 given active maternal or paternal headache.

36 *Results:* There was a significant association between maternal migraine and offspring
37 migraine (OR 2.76, 95% CI 2.18-3.51). A weaker association ($p = 0.004$ for comparison
38 with maternal migraine) was found between paternal migraine and offspring migraine
39 (OR 1.67, 95% CI 1.33-2.28). For non-migrainous headache, there was a significant
40 association between mothers and offspring (OR 1.25, 95% CI 1.10-1.43), but not
41 between fathers and offspring.

42 *Conclusions:* Parental migraine is associated with offspring migraine, with a stronger
43 association for maternal migraine. This may indicate maternal-specific transmission.

44

45 Introduction

46 It has long been known that migraine runs in families, and first-degree relatives of
47 migraine sufferers have a twofold increased risk of developing migraine themselves.¹

48 Twin studies have estimated the heritability of migraine to 45%,² indicating that genetic
49 factors play a substantial role in this familial transmission. However, non-genetic
50 familial influences may also contribute, as migraine has been linked to, among other
51 factors, previous stressful events,³ socioeconomic status,⁴ smoking,⁵ alcohol
52 consumption (inverse association),⁵ overweight,⁵ physical activity,⁶ and anxiety and
53 depression.³

54 Studying migraine within well-characterized families may help delineate the
55 mechanisms of familial transmission, such as selective influences from the mother or the
56 father. Some clinical studies suggest that migraine is mainly transmitted through the
57 maternal line,⁷⁻¹¹ indicating a maternal-specific transmission. However, none of these
58 studies included a control group, making interpretation difficult. Furthermore, no
59 studies have examined familial transmission of migraine, separating mothers and
60 fathers, in the general population.

61 Our aim was to clarify mother-offspring and father-offspring associations of migraine in
62 the large, population-based Nord-Trøndelag Health Study.

63

64 **Methods**

65 **Study population**

66 The Nord-Trøndelag Health Study (HUNT) is a large, population-based cohort study
67 carried out in Nord-Trøndelag county, Norway. In the Adult-HUNT Surveys, all adult
68 inhabitants (age ≥ 20) in the county were invited to participate, while in the
69 corresponding Young-HUNT Surveys, all adolescents in junior high and high school (age
70 13–19 years) were invited. In Adult-HUNT, data were collected using questionnaires,

71 including more than 200 health-related questions, and clinical examinations. In Young-
72 HUNT, data collection was mainly performed during school hours, and included self-
73 reported questionnaires, structured headache interviews, and clinical measurements.
74 The Adult-HUNT2 (1995–1997) and Adult-HUNT3 (2006–2008), together with the
75 Young-HUNT1 (1995–1997), Young-HUNT2 (1999–2000), and Young-HUNT3 (2006–
76 2008) Surveys constitute our study sample. An overview of the cohorts and
77 participation rates is given in Figure 1.

78 Family information from Statistics Norway enabled us to link the offspring's
79 questionnaires with their parents' through the use of personal identification numbers,
80 specific to all Norwegian inhabitants. Statistics Norway also supplied information about
81 the parents' education.

82 We used the surveys in a cross-sectional design. Since some individuals participated in
83 more than one study, Adult-HUNT2 was chosen as the default dataset. We then added
84 individuals consecutively from each of the following studies, if the individual had not
85 participated in one of the previous studies: Adult-HUNT3, Young-HUNT3, Young-HUNT2
86 and Young-HUNT1. This means that we have offspring both from Young-HUNT and
87 Adult-HUNT. In total, 78,570 participants responded to the headache questions in any of
88 the studies. In this combined dataset, headache information from parents was linked to
89 their offspring. In the main analyses we excluded individuals > 52 years of age, as only
90 current headache was assessed in the questionnaires, and because migraine prevalence
91 decreases strongly after this age.¹² Finally, we excluded individuals with missing
92 information on age. Our final study sample consisted of 8,970 offspring, 8,015 mothers,
93 and 5,716 fathers. In a sensitivity analysis to examine how using an age truncated

94 sample (≤ 52 years) affected our analyses, we used a larger sample that included
95 individuals of all ages (19,328 offspring, 16,999 mothers and 13,252 fathers).

96 [insert Figure 1.]

97 Headache diagnoses

98 Headache, both in offspring and parents, was classified as migraine or non-migrainous
99 headache.

100 In Young-HUNT, headache diagnoses were obtained through a, structured interview,
101 performed by trained nurses. The students were asked if they had experienced
102 recurrent headaches over the past 12 months that were not related to cold, fever, or any
103 other disease. Those who answered “no” constitute the headache-free control group.
104 Those who answered “yes” were considered to have active headache, and were read two
105 typical headache symptom history descriptions, one for migraine and one for tension-
106 type headache, and were asked to classify their headache(s) according to these. Those
107 who did not classify their headache as migraine (tension-type headache only, or
108 headache not resembling any of the two descriptions) were classified as having non-
109 migrainous headache. These diagnoses were mutually exclusive. The headache
110 diagnoses have previously been validated according to the criteria of the International
111 Headache Society through clinical interviews by neurologists.¹³ For migraine, the
112 positive and negative predictive values were 89% and 90%, respectively, and the
113 change-corrected agreement (kappa) was 0.72 (CI; 0.58–0.87).

114 Headache diagnoses in the Adult-HUNT Surveys were assessed using questionnaires,
115 and based on a modified version of the International Classification of Headache
116 Disorders (ICHD II).¹⁴ Subjects who answered “yes” to the question “Have you suffered

117 from headache during the last 12 months?" were classified as active headache sufferers.
118 Those who answered "no" constitute the headache-free group. Based on the subsequent
119 headache questions,^{15, 16} headache sufferers were classified as having migraine if they
120 fulfilled the following 3 criteria: (1) headache attacks lasting 4 to 72 hours, (<4 hours
121 was accepted for those who reported commonly occurring visual disturbances before
122 headache); (2) headache with at least one of the following characteristics: pulsating
123 quality, unilateral location, or aggravation by physical activity; (3) during headache, at
124 least one of the following occurred: nausea, photophobia and phonophobia. In addition,
125 the participants were asked if they suffered from migraine; those who responded
126 positively to this question were also included in the migraine group. Headache sufferers
127 that did not fulfil the criteria for migraine were classified as having non-migrainous
128 headache, and the diagnoses were mutually exclusive. The headache diagnoses have
129 previously been validated by clinical interviews performed by neurologists. For
130 migraine in HUNT2, the sensitivity was 69% and specificity 89% ($\kappa = 0.59$, 95% CI 0.47–
131 0.71).¹⁵ In HUNT3 the sensitivity and specificity for migraine were 49% and 96%
132 respectively ($\kappa = 0.51$, 95% CI 0.34–0.68).¹⁶

133 In a secondary analysis, we stratified parental migraine into low-frequent (< 7
134 days/month) and high-frequent migraine (≥ 7 days/month).

135 Potential confounders

136 Covariates for each subject were collected from the same survey as their headache
137 status, except for parental level of education, which was available from Statistics
138 Norway. Parental level of education, was reclassified into three levels: primary school,
139 high school, and higher education. Combined anxiety and depression was in Young-
140 HUNT assessed with the Symptom Checklist 5 (SCL-5),¹⁷ using a mean score of > 2.0 as

141 cut-off. In Adult-HUNT we used the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS)¹⁸
142 using a total score of ≥ 15 as cut-off to assess combined anxiety and depression.
143 Exposure to smoking at home while growing up was assessed in all five studies and used
144 as a binary variable. Parental weight categories were classified as normal/underweight
145 (BMI < 25), overweight (BMI 25-30) and obesity (BMI ≥ 30). Parental physical activity
146 was classified according to hours of vigorous activity per week, where high physical
147 activity was defined as ≥ 3 hours/week, moderate physical activity as 1–2 hours/week,
148 and low physical activity as ≥ 1 hour/week. Since age was not linearly associated with
149 migraine on the logit scale, it was categorized into 5-year groups.

150 Data analysis

151 All analyses were performed using a generalized mixed model with logit link, modelling
152 dependencies within families through random effects, and other covariates as fixed
153 effects. We estimated odds ratios (OR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) for the
154 association between maternal or paternal headache (exposure) and offspring headache
155 (outcome), using headache-free offspring as controls. Separate analyses were performed
156 for migraine and non-migrainous headache. We analysed daughters and sons both
157 separately and combined. Secondary analyses were performed on low vs. high frequent
158 migraine in parents. These analyses were not stratified on daughters and sons because
159 of small sample sizes in each group. For comparison of the effect estimates of maternal
160 and paternal headache, we analysed mothers and fathers in the same model, using a
161 post-estimation Wald test to compare whether the estimates for mothers and fathers
162 were equal. To explore how the use of an age truncated sample (≤ 52 years) affected our
163 analyses, we performed 1) a logistic regression analysis of parental age (< and > 52
164 years) as predictor and parental migraine as outcome; and 2) a logistic regression

165 analysis of the effect of parental migraine on offspring migraine, where individuals of all
166 ages were included. Two-tailed P-values are reported, using 5% as a cut-off for
167 statistical significance. Identification of potential confounding factors was based on a
168 priori knowledge of possible risk factors for migraine and modelled with a Directed
169 Acyclic Graph (DAG) to visualize causal assumptions (Suppl. Figure 1). The variables
170 considered to be potential confounders from the DAG are listed under 'potential
171 confounders' above. We then used the Mantel-Haenszel method to quantify the
172 confounding effect, using a $\geq 5\%$ change between the adjusted Mantel-Haenszel OR and
173 the crude OR as a cut-off for including the covariate in the final model. Sex, and parental
174 and offspring age were not analysed with Mantel-Haenzel, but included as covariates in
175 all analyses, modelled as fixed effects, as migraine is known to vary greatly with sex and
176 age.¹² Analyses were performed using Stata/SE 14.1 for Mac (StataCorp LP, College
177 Station, TX, USA).

178 Participation was based on informed, written consent, and the study was approved by
179 the Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research (#2015/463/REK Central). In
180 addition, the HUNT Study was approved by the Norwegian Data Inspectorate.

181

182 Results

183 The final study population consisted of 8,970 offspring, 4,830 females and 4,140 males,
184 who had available information about headache status from at least one parent. In total
185 13,731 parents were included, 8,015 mothers and 5,716 fathers. Among the offspring,
186 15.3% of the females and 6.3% of the males had migraine, while, 29.5% of the females
187 and 18.4% of the males had non-migrainous headache. Among the parents, 21.8% of the

188 mothers and 10.1% of the fathers had migraine, while 35.8% of the mothers and 26.1%
189 of the fathers had non-migrainous headache.

190 The demographic data are displayed in Table 1.

191 [insert Table 1.]

192 Mantel-Haenszel tests revealed no significant confounders, neither for migraine, nor for
193 non-migrainous headache (data not given), and only parental and offspring age were
194 included in the final models.

195 Both maternal and paternal migraine were significantly associated with offspring
196 migraine, with a stronger association between mother-offspring than between father-
197 offspring ($p = 0.004$). When stratifying on offspring sex, the significant associations
198 remained, both for mothers and fathers, in daughters and sons (Table 2). In secondary
199 analyses, stratifying on parental migraine frequency, both low- and high frequent
200 migraine was associated with offspring migraine (Suppl. Table 1). The effect sizes for
201 low- and high-frequent parental migraine were not significantly different ($p = 0.27$ for
202 mothers and $p = 0.28$ for fathers).

203 [insert Table 2.]

204 Additional analyses were performed to examine the effect of using an age-truncated
205 sample (≤ 52 years of age). Both mothers (OR 0.27, 95% CI 0.25-0.30, $p < 0.001$) and
206 fathers (OR 0.40, 95% CI 0.35-0.46, $p < 0.001$) > 52 years of age had reduced odds of
207 having migraine, compared to mothers and fathers ≤ 52 years of age. When parents of all
208 ages were included in the analyses of the association between paternal headache and
209 offspring headache, the estimates were still significant, but weaker compared to the

210 main analyses, both for mother-offspring (OR 2.54, 95% CI 2.16-2.98, $p < 0.001$) and for
211 father-offspring (OR 1.93, 95% CI 1.54-2.41, $p < 0.001$). The stronger association
212 between mother-offspring than between father-offspring remained significant ($p =$
213 0.015).

214 For non-migrainous headache, there was a significant association between maternal
215 headache and offspring headache. When stratifying on offspring sex, the association
216 remained significant between mothers and daughters only. No significant associations
217 were found between paternal headache and offspring headache (Table 3).

218 [insert Table 3.]

219

220 Discussion

221 In this population-based study we found that both maternal and paternal migraine were
222 significantly associated with migraine in their offspring. Mother-offspring associations
223 were significantly stronger than father-offspring associations. The odds for migraine
224 increased by 1.5-fold if the father had migraine, and by 2.9-fold if the mother had
225 migraine, compared to those with headache-free parents.

226 These results suggest a stronger transmission of migraine from mothers to offspring
227 than from fathers to offspring. This is in line with previous studies suggesting that
228 migraine is mainly transmitted through the maternal line.⁷⁻¹¹

229 The association between parental and offspring migraine could be due to genetic or
230 environmental factors. It is well known that parental behaviour is important for pain
231 perception and pain behaviour of their children.¹⁹ Parental responses to their childrens'

232 pain may influence their development and maintenance of pain.²⁰ It could be postulated
233 that mothers have a stronger influence on their childrens' pain behaviour than fathers,
234 as they are more often the primary caregivers. However, such learned pain behaviour
235 cannot easily explain the observed difference between migraine and non-migrainous
236 headache, both being pain disorders.

237 Shared environmental factors within the family, causing migraine in both parents and
238 offspring, could also be involved. However, twin and family studies of migraine have not
239 been able to demonstrate an effect of shared family environment on migraine.²¹ In the
240 present study, offspring with headache were older, and were more likely to have older
241 parents, with higher BMI, lower physical activity, lower education level, more anxiety
242 and depression, being exposed to smoking at home while growing up, and to have
243 anxiety and depression themselves. While previous studies have found associations
244 between headache and all of these factors,³⁻⁶ none of the parental and family factors
245 examined in this study was found to affect the association estimates. The age differences
246 are likely due to the prevalence of migraine increasing through adolescence, and were
247 adjusted for in the analyses by including age as a covariate.

248 The stronger maternal influence may alternatively result from genetic factors. Twin
249 studies have estimated that genetic variation accounts for about 45% of the total
250 variation of migraine,² and, so far, genome-wide association studies have identified 38
251 risk loci.²²

252 Migraine is thought to result from the combined effects of genetic susceptibility and
253 environmental risk factors. In a typical "threshold model" for developing disease, the
254 lower risk of migraine in males²³ would need to be a result of a lower environmental
255 risk load, as genetic risk factors are typically shared equally by male and female

256 offspring. This in turn means that males with migraine are expected to have a higher
257 load of genetic risk factors to overcome their otherwise lower propensity for developing
258 migraine. This is termed the *Carter effect*; individuals of the less commonly affected sex
259 carry a higher genetic load and are therefore more likely to transmit the disease to their
260 offspring.²⁴ Consequently, males would be expected to pass on migraine to their children
261 more often than females. The fact that the opposite pattern is observed in our study
262 suggests that genetic mechanisms other than typical polygenic autosomal inheritance
263 may be involved. Genetic transmission primarily through the maternal line may be
264 caused by risk variants in mitochondrial DNA, which is inherited from mothers only, or
265 from *genetic imprinting*. Mitochondrial inheritance or mitochondrial defects have been
266 indicated in migraine,²⁵ but no conclusions can be drawn from existing studies. Genetic
267 imprinting is an epigenetic mechanism in which the phenotypic effect of a genetic risk
268 variant depends on whether it is inherited from the mother or the father.²⁶ Imprinting is
269 implicated in several complex disorders,²⁶ and it has been suggested that it is important
270 in migraine.¹⁰ However, no studies directly examining imprinting in migraine have been
271 published to date.

272 Strengths of this study include the use of a large and unselected population-based
273 sample. Furthermore, the migraine diagnoses were validated and based on the ICHD-
274 criteria. The parents and offspring participated in the study independently, meaning
275 they did not influence each other when answering the questions. The general health
276 focus of the questionnaires decreases the risk of a specific selection bias in relation to
277 headache diagnoses and made it possible to evaluate several potential confounding
278 factors.

279 A limitation of the study is its cross-sectional design, rendering causal inference difficult.
280 We assume that migraine is being transmitted from parents to offspring, through either
281 genetic or environmental mechanisms. However, we cannot exclude the possibility of
282 psychosocial factors having an opposite effect direction, that is, migraine in the offspring
283 causing migraine in their parents. We believe, however, that this is likely to account for a
284 minority of cases. Another limitation is that only active headache was assessed. Migraine
285 prevalence decreases in middle age,¹² and for women particularly post menopause.²³
286 Including a large number of older parents, whose migraine had terminated, is likely to
287 lead to a misclassification of migraine. Since the respondents were recruited separately
288 and were unaware of our research hypothesis, such misclassification would likely be
289 nondifferential, i.e. independent of offspring headache status, resulting in a deflation of
290 the association estimates. We aimed to limit this effect by excluding parents > 52 years
291 of age (median age for menopause for white women in industrialized countries).²⁷ The
292 use of questionnaire-based headache diagnoses rather than clinical interview will lead
293 to a degree of misclassification between migraine and non-migrainous headache. For
294 adolescents, headache diagnoses also often change between migraine and other primary
295 headache disorders as they grow older.²⁸ The bias caused by misclassification is likely to
296 result in an underestimation of any observed effect. In addition, non-migrainous
297 headache includes a heterogenous group of headache disorders, making interpretations
298 in this group difficult. From the validation study in HUNT2, it was found that 55% had
299 tension-type headache (TTH) and 32% had migraine. The participation rates in the five
300 studies ranged from 42% to 73% (Figure 1) and a selection bias, both in offspring and
301 parents, cannot be ruled out. However, a non-participant study from the Adult-HUNT3,
302 which had the lowest participation rate, found only minor differences between
303 participants and non-participants regarding various conditions, including migraine and

304 headache.²⁹ Lastly, there may be unmeasured confounding factors, including family
305 structure, non-paternity and adoption. For example, children growing up with only one
306 of their parents will share less environmental factors and receive less social influences
307 from the other parent. This could deflate the estimates for the other parent. Analysing
308 children living with only one parent could also provide information about the relative
309 genetic and non-genetic influences from the other parent. Therefore, future studies
310 should ideally include information on family structure.

311 In conclusion, in this large population-based study we found that parental migraine was
312 associated with migraine in their offspring, with a stronger association in mothers than
313 in fathers. In contrast, non-migrainous headache showed weaker parent-offspring
314 associations, significant only between mothers and offspring. While firm conclusions
315 cannot be drawn from this study alone, the results are consistent with indications of a
316 larger contribution from genetic risk factors in migraine and suggests the involvement
317 of maternal-specific transmission, for example, through mitochondrial transmission or
318 genetic imprinting. Future studies should examine to what extent these mechanisms
319 contribute to the development of migraine.

320 **Acknowledgements**

321 The Nord-Trøndelag Health Study (The HUNT Study) is a collaboration between HUNT
322 Research Centre (Faculty of Medicine, Norwegian University of Science and Technology
323 NTNU), Nord-Trøndelag County Council, Central Norway Health Authority, and the
324 Norwegian Institute of Public Health.

325 Declaration of conflicting interests

326 The Authors declare no conflict of interest.

327

328 Study funding

329 This work was supported by the South-Eastern Norway Regional Health Authority, grant
330 2015089 to SB; and the Research Council of Norway, grant 231187/F20 to BSW. The
331 funding sources had no roles in the study.

332 Key findings

- 333 • Parental migraine is associated with offspring migraine
- 334 • Maternal migraine has a significantly stronger association with offspring
335 migraine than paternal migraine
- 336 • Maternal migraine increases the odds for offspring migraine by 2.9-fold, while
337 paternal migraine increases the odds for offspring migraine by 1.5-fold.

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