

1 Development and external validation of a home-based risk prediction 2 model of natural onset of menopause -TEUTA

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1 ABSTRACT

2

3 **Objective:** To develop and externally validate a 10-year risk prediction model of natural onset of
4 menopause using ready-to-use predictors.

5 **Design:** Population-based prospective cohort study.

6 **Participants:** Community-dwelling, premenopausal women aged 28 years and older enrolled in
7 the Swiss (CoLaus) and Dutch (PREVEND) study.

8 **Main outcome measure:** Incidence of self-reported natural menopause.

9 **Model development:** Based on existing literature, 11 predictors were tested in this study. The
10 CoLaus cohort was used to develop the model by applying the backward-elimination approach and
11 Bayesian Model Averaging. Internal validation was performed by bootstrapping. External
12 validation was performed using data from the PREVEND cohort and recalibrating the baseline
13 survival estimate. C-statistic, calibration slopes, and expected/observed probabilities were
14 calculated as measures of model internal and/or external performances.

15 **Results:** The final analysis included 750 and 1032 premenopausal women from the CoLaus and
16 the PREVEND cohort, respectively. Among them, 445 (59%) from CoLaus and 387 (38%) from
17 PREVEND experienced menopause over a median follow-up of 10.7 and 9 years, respectively.
18 The final model included age, alcohol consumption, smoking status, education level, and systolic
19 blood pressure. Upon external calibration in the PREVEND cohort, the model exhibited good
20 discrimination, with a C-statistic of 0.888 and an expected/observed probability of 0.82.

21 **Conclusions:** We present the first internally and externally validated prediction model of natural
22 menopause onset using readily available predictors. Validation of our model to other populations
23 is needed.

1 1. INTRODUCTION

2 Menopause is an important event in a women's life, as it marks the end of the reproductive lifespan.
3 It can occur between the age of 40 and 60 years, with the average age at natural menopause (ANM)
4 for western women ranging between 49 to 51 years [1]. Menopause forecasts may be used to
5 extrapolate end of natural fertility, which typically occurs 10 years earlier [2]. Being informed
6 about the end of female fertile lifespan would greatly assist in family planning and consideration
7 of assisted fertility. This becomes particularly relevant due to the worrisome current trend of
8 delaying childbirth with the increasing female participation in workforce and the ageing of the
9 population [3]. Projections report that the number of post-menopausal women will exceed 1 billion
10 by the next decade [4]. If menopause occurs earlier than expected, namely early menopause (e.g.,
11 45 or younger), it could lead to unforeseen infertility. Currently, as many as 10% of women
12 experience early menopause [5].

13 Moreover, forecasting the age of natural menopause may also be beneficial for the tailored
14 prevention and management of menopause-related risks and comorbidities. Studies have shown
15 that women experiencing early menopause have a higher risk of developing chronic diseases such
16 as type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular diseases, and osteoporosis. Moreover, these women live on
17 average three years shorter as compared to women with normal ANM [5-8]. On the other hand,
18 late ANM (e.g., 55 years or older) has been associated with a heightened risk of ovarian, breast,
19 and endometrial cancers [9].

20 The feasibility of predicting the timing of ANM has been demonstrated in several studies that have
21 utilized sex hormones and other biomarkers as predictive indicators, including family history and
22 lifestyle factors as summarized in a recent systematic review [10]. However, this systematic review
23 of prediction models of ANM points out the methodological limitations of most of the models, in

1 particular high risk of bias and lack of validation [10]. Another pitfall is that the majority of these
2 studies have developed prediction tools by using single or multiple hormone measurements,
3 hindering the usability of these models in non-specialist care, and the cost-effectiveness from a
4 health economic perspective.

5 Thus, because of the momentous impact that unforeseen infertility (also known as the “infertility
6 trap”), might carry in times of worrisome declining birth rates , we aimed to develop a 10-year risk
7 prediction model of onset of natural menopause, using data from two population-based cohorts,
8 with readily available (sociodemographic, lifestyle and medical history-based health information)
9 factors related to ANM (This timespan was chosen based on the availability of the data and
10 corresponds to the mean follow-up time of the other prediction models of ANM[10]). This duration
11 allows for a meaningful assessment of risk over a substantial timeframe while obtaining reliable
12 estimates, allowing for timely discussion of conception and/or cardiometabolic prevention
13 strategies .

14 **2. METHODS**

15 **2.1. Study population**

16 The model was developed using data from the CoLaus cohort and was externally validated in the
17 PREVEND cohort. Detailed descriptions of the two cohorts could be found elsewhere [11, 12].

18 Briefly, The CoLaus cohort is a single-center population-based cohort of people of Caucasian
19 origin, and living in Lausanne, Switzerland [11]. With a follow-up period of every 5 years, we
20 used the baseline assessment (2003-2006), and the second follow-up (2014-2017) of the CoLaus
21 cohort. Inclusion criteria consisted of written informed consent and age 35-75. In the end, the
22 baseline interview was completed by 2688 women. The study was approved by the Institutional

1 Ethics Committee of the University of Lausanne, Switzerland and all participants provided written
2 informed consent.

3 The PREVEND study investigates the risk factors for and the prevalence and consequences of
4 microalbuminuria in otherwise healthy adults (≥ 18 years) in the city of Groningen, the Netherlands
5 [12]. Briefly, all 85,421 inhabitants of the city of Groningen aged 28-75 years were invited, from
6 1997 to 1998, participated in the study and were asked to complete a brief questionnaire and
7 provide morning urine. The urinary albumin concentration (UAC) was determined in 40,856
8 responders. Pregnant women and participants with insulin-treated diabetes mellitus were excluded.
9 Participants with a UAC ≥ 10 mg/L ($n=7,768$) were requested to participate in the cohort, of whom
10 6,000 were enrolled. Additionally, a randomly chosen control group with a UAC of < 10 mg/L
11 ($n=3,395$) was invited, of whom 2,592 were enrolled. These 8,592 participants constitute the
12 PREVEND cohort. A second screening round took place from 2001 to 2003, encompassing 6,894
13 participants. We used data from the second screening (2001/2003) and the fourth follow-up
14 (2009/2012) for external validation of the model. The PREVEND study has been approved by the
15 local medical ethics committee (MEC 96/01/022) and was undertaken in accordance with the
16 Declaration of Helsinki. All participants provided written informed consent. Patients or the public
17 WERE NOT involved in the design, or conduct, or reporting, or dissemination plans of our
18 research.

19 **2.2. Eligibility criteria**

20 Participants were excluded from the analysis if they i) were males (ii) were postmenopausal at
21 baseline, provided contradictory or no information on menopausal status; (iii) had hysterectomy
22 and/or oophorectomy, or polycystic ovarian syndrome (PCOS); (iv) used hormone replacement

1 therapy (HRT) at enrolment; (v) had missing data on independent variables; (vi) were older than
2 55 years at baseline.

3 (PCOS is associated with irregularities in menstruation, while HRT and hormonal contraception
4 could restore bleeding in women, depending on how the progestin is prescribed. Thus, women
5 with PCOS and use of HRT were excluded to reduce the possibility of false positive and false
6 negative cases, respectively).

7 **2.3.Data collection**

8 **2.3.1. Assessment of the outcome/menopausal status and age**

9 The outcome was assessed in the same way for all participants. Natural menopause was defined as
10 self-reported natural cessation of menstruation. For the CoLaus cohort, menopausal status was
11 assessed by asking the participants “*Are you menopausal*” at baseline, and “*Do you still have*
12 *your menses*” at the follow-ups.

13 In the PREVEND cohort, menopausal status was assessed by asking the participants
14 “*Menstruation (do you still menstruate)*” question, which was answered as yes, if they still
15 menstruate and if not, time since the last menstruation was requested.

16 Participants who declared to have experienced menopause were asked to indicate ANM. In the
17 CoLaus cohort, to correct for the recall bias, the reported ANM at 2nd follow-up was compared
18 with the reported ANM at 1st follow-up; if the difference was greater than 2 years, participants
19 were excluded from the analyses (n=37), otherwise, ANM was replaced with the average of the
20 two reported ages. In the PREVEND cohort, information on ANM was categorical. To match the
21 data in our development set, we averaged the age at menopause in each group and subsequently
22 converted it to a continuous variable. E.g. Category of ANM of 37-41 years was converted to 39.

1 In both cohorts, participants reported whether they had experienced natural or medically (surgical)
2 induced menopause, as well as their history of using hormone replacement therapy (HRT).
3 Additionally, in CoLaus study, information on PCOS was collected.

4 **2.3.2. Assessment of Candidate Predictors and other independent variables**

5 Ready-to-use candidate predictors included in our analysis were chosen based on previous
6 literature, biological plausibility, expert opinion, and availability in the respective cohorts [13-29].
7 We identified 11 candidate predictors, summarized in Table 1.

8 **2.3.3. Predictors definition**

9 The list of candidate predictors and how they were defined is described in Supplementary Table
10 S1 [30]. Continuous variables were kept as such, except body mass index (BMI), which was
11 categorized to the literature standards, for simplicity reasons, should it be included in the final
12 model [31]. In the PREVEND cohort, only variables selected for the prediction model from the
13 model development phase were assessed, and they were transformed to match CoLaus variables,
14 when needed.

15 **2.4. Sample size**

16 We were not aware of any previous prediction model on the topic that provided all the necessary
17 parameters to perform a minimum sample-size calculation as suggested by Riley et. al. Therefore,
18 we used the 10 Events per Predictor Parameter (EPP) rule of thumb as the minimum sample size
19 for developing a prediction model [32].

20 **2.5. Statistical analyses**

21 **2.5.1. Model development**

22 STATA 17 and R Studio 4.3.2 were used for all analyses. Categorical variables were presented as
23 numbers and proportions, while continuous variables were reported as medians and interquartile

1 ranges or as average \pm standard deviation. Systolic blood pressure (SBP) was inversely
2 transformed ($1/\text{SBP}$) to reach normal distribution and Diastolic Blood Pressure (DBP) was
3 naturally log-transformed.

4 The risk prediction model was developed following the TRIPOD guidelines for model
5 development and reporting [33]. We performed multivariable Cox proportional hazards regression
6 analyses to relate risk factors to the incidence of menopause and plotted the absolute risk. Follow-
7 up of each participant began at the age of the baseline assessment, and ended at the age of
8 menopause, age of onset of HRT use (for participants who started HRT after enrolment), or end of
9 the study period which was until 2017. Mean follow up time was calculated using the reverse
10 Kaplan-Meier method.

11 All candidate predictors were tested for proportionality of the hazard assumptions based on the
12 Schoenfeld residuals, and all predictors fulfilled the proportionality of hazard assumptions [34].
13 We also checked for possible correlation between predictors by calculating the Spearman Rank
14 Correlation Coefficients [35]. In case of high correlation, the correlated variables will explain the
15 same variation in the outcome, therefore, only one of the correlated variables was kept. This is also
16 a way of reducing the number of candidate predictors. Due to high correlation between SBP and
17 DBP (-0.83) and considering that SBP is used more often in prediction models of health outcomes,
18 only SBP was kept for our analysis. We selected our model beginning with the defined set of
19 candidate predictors (age, age at menarche, parity, use of contraceptives, alcohol use, level of
20 education, BMI, smoking status, socio-economic status, and SBP) using backward selection
21 procedure, considering for non-linear relationship between continuous predictors and ANM.
22 Fractional polynomials were used to identify the optimal functional form of continuous variables
23 (using the STATA command `fmp`). We set a p-value of 0.1 so as not to be too stringent. Since only

1 6 participants had missing data on the development cohort, we performed a complete-case
2 analysis; thus, no imputation method was used.

3 **2.5.2. Model performance and internal validation**

4 Calculation of the C-statistic and 95% Confidence Intervals (95% CI) was performed to evaluate
5 the apparent discrimination performance of the model. The C-statistic is a measure of a model's
6 discriminatory ability (i.e., the ability to correctly classify individuals based on their outcomes),
7 which can be interpreted as the probability that, for any randomly selected pair of individuals, the
8 individual who experiences the event first has a higher predicted risk. We then calculated the
9 calibration slope and plotted the linear predictor for the model in four risk groups to assess the
10 separation across the four risk groups (with better separation indicating good performance of the
11 model). This is also indicative of the C-statistic. The risk groups were created using the specified
12 centiles which were defined by Cox's method [36]. To assess for optimism generated in the model
13 development process, calculations for any required shrinkage of the coefficients were made (33).
14 We carried out internal validation to estimate optimism (overfitting level) and to correct measures
15 of predictive performance (calibration slope) for model overfitting by bootstrapping 500 samples.
16 The entire process of model selection was repeated in the bootstrap samples as per TRIPOD
17 guidelines (Supplementary Material-TRIPOD Checklist) [30, 33]. We then applied each of these
18 bootstrap sample models within the original dataset to estimate optimism in the performance
19 statistics (difference in test performance and apparent bootstrap performance) of C-statistic and
20 calibration slope. To adjust for optimism after model development, we obtained estimates of a
21 uniform shrinkage factor (the average calibration slope from each of the bootstrap samples) and
22 multiplied these by the original β coefficients to obtain optimism adjusted coefficients [37, 38].

23

1 **2.5.3. External validation**

2 After model development and internal validation, we validated the model externally in the
3 PREVEND cohort.

4 We fitted the calibration slope using the linear predictor as the only predictor in the model. The
5 value of the calibration slope and the C-statistic for the discrimination of the model in the
6 validation dataset were calculated. We then calculated the predicted survival probabilities for
7 individuals at 10 years. Using the Kaplan-Meier estimate, the observed probability was obtained
8 and the overall expected/observed (E/O) ratio at 10 years was calculated. Next, we produced a
9 calibration plot for the model in the external data. Subsequently, we re-calibrated the baseline
10 survival estimate of the model to account for miscalibration. Because external validation is done
11 in populations with different characteristics, hence different baseline survival, we need to
12 recalculate the baseline hazard of the new dataset [39]. We re-estimated the baseline survival
13 estimate and redid the calibration plot to evaluate potential improvement in calibration.
14 Calibration was presented as the ratio of observed to expected event probabilities (O/E) and
15 calibration plots to compare the observed versus predicted risks at 10 years.

16 **2.5.4. Sensitivity analyses.**

17 Several sensitivity analyses were performed: i) replacing SBP with DBP or keeping both variables
18 to assess if this will have an impact on the model performance, and ii) including antihypertensive
19 therapy in the final model: iia) First, we included antihypertensive therapy as a candidate predictor
20 to check if backward elimination would choose antihypertensive treatment alongside SBP in the
21 final model. iib) Second, we excluded all the participants on antihypertensive medication n=38
22 (5%) to check if this would impact our results. iii) To further assess the performance of the model
23 we computed different model performance measures across different thresholds. Given the

1 absence of a presently established threshold for defining high risk categories of menopause onset,
2 we analyzed the distribution of predicted risks of developing menopause and computed values
3 using the centiles proposed by Cox[36]. We categorized women based on their predicted risk
4 levels: those with a risk higher than 0.16, 0.5, or 0.84 to have experienced the event, and compared
5 it to the true event rate in three separate analyses. For each centile threshold we computed the Area
6 Under the Receiver Operator Curve (AUROC), Sensitivity and Specificity with the corresponding
7 95% confidence intervals. We also computed the Brier's score, to further assess the discrimination
8 and calibration of our model. In addition, to ensure that the selected predictors would be supported
9 by other model selection methods, we applied Bayesian Model Averaging (BMA) for Survival
10 Analysis. The same 11 predictors were considered, and models created from all possible
11 combinations of the candidate predictors were evaluated. Posterior Probabilities (the probability
12 that a predictor would be included in the model) were calculated and predictors from the best five
13 models were considered (R Package BMA). Finally, since categorizing continuous variables may
14 cause loss of information, on a sensitivity analysis we explored the predictive utility of BMI as a
15 continuous variable, both for the stepwise approach and the BMA approach [40].

16 **3. RESULTS**

17 A total of 750 and 1032 women fulfilled the inclusion criteria in the CoLaus and PREVEND
18 cohorts, respectively. During a maximum follow-up period of 12.7 years and a median follow-up
19 of 10.7 (CoLaus) and 9 years(PREVEND), 445 (59.3%) and 387 (37.8%) women respectively,
20 developed natural menopause at the end of the follow-up presented at Supplementary Figures S1a,
21 S1b & S2a [30]. General baseline characteristics of included participants are presented in Table 2.

22

1 **3.1. Model development and apparent performance**

2 Out of eleven candidate predictors, five were included in the final model. Older age, alcohol
3 abstinence, being a former or current smoker, having a lower level of education, and lower SBP
4 were associated with a higher risk probability of developing menopause over the next 10 years.
5 Fractional polynomial terms for the continuous predictors (age and SBP) were included in the final
6 model to allow for non-linear relations (Table S2)[30]. The model showed good apparent
7 predictive performance (C-statistic of 0.837, 95% CI 0.819 - 0.854) and perfect calibration
8 (calibration slope=1). This was confirmed as well by the good separation across the four risk
9 groups, with a p-value of <0.001, which also is indicative of the C-statistic (Fig. S2b)[30].

10 **3.2. Model internal validation**

11 Internal validation showed some overfitting. The calibration slope, which was previously perfect
12 (c-slope=1), decreased to 0.949 after internal validation. The C-statistic did not significantly
13 change; 0.833 from 0.837 as it previously was. The estimates were multiplied by 0.949 to obtain
14 optimism-adjusted β -coefficients (Table S2)[30]. The final model with adjusted coefficients is
15 shown in Supplementary Material Box S1[30].

16 17 **3.3. Model external validation**

18 After fitting the final model in the validation dataset (PREVEND), we had a resulting C-statistic
19 of 0.888(95% CI 0.873 - 0.900). The expected observed probability at 10 years (E/O) was 0.82,
20 which shows that the model was underpredicting. The calibration slope was 1.026, confirming that
21 the predictions were lower than the observed probabilities (Fig. A). Thus, we recalibrated the
22 intercept and the baseline hazard. After recalibration, the baseline survival at 10 years was 0.321,

1 instead of 0.470 which was before calibrating the model. After correcting for the systematic
2 underprediction, the calibration slope showed better performance of the model (Fig. B).

3 **3.4. Sensitivity analysis**

4 i) Replacing SBP with DBP or using both predictors in the model did not change model
5 performance. iia) Including antihypertensive treatment in the group of candidate predictors did not
6 impact the selected predictors, and iib) excluding participants treated with antihypertensive
7 treatment did not impact the results, nor the model performance. iii) Our model showed good
8 AUROC, Sensitivity and Specificity across different thresholds presented at Supplementary table
9 3 [30]. The model performed the best when a threshold of 0.5 was used, showing good sensitivity
10 and excellent specificity. Using the risk threshold of 0.16 and 0.84 our model showed very high
11 sensitivity and specificity respectively. The model resulted on a Brier's score of 0.188, confirming
12 good calibration and discrimination of our model. Using BMA for Survival Analysis for model
13 selection resulted again with the same 5 predictors chosen by backward elimination. Finally,
14 keeping BMI on it's original continuous form did not change the results.

15 **4. DISCUSSION**

16 Using data from a Swiss population-based cohort, we developed an easy-to-use and cost-effective
17 risk prediction model of natural menopause onset based on readily available predictors. Beginning
18 with a set of predefined predictors chosen based on previous knowledge and expert opinion, our
19 final model consisted of age, alcohol consumption, smoking status, level of education and SBP.
20 The model was selected using backward selection and Bayesian Model Averaging. Our model
21 showed a good apparent performance, with a C-statistic of 0.837. We then externally validated our
22 model in a Dutch population-based cohort, with similar participants' clinical characteristics (Table
23 2). The Expected/Observed ratio of the model was 0.82 and the C-statistic 0.888. Before

1 recalibration of the model, our model was underpredicting. After recalibrating the intercept to
2 adjust for optimism, the new calibration slope showed better performance of the model. Our model
3 performed good across different thresholds, suggesting that we can use different thresholds
4 depending on the aim. Employing a lower threshold would allow us to lower the rate of false
5 negative cases whereas a higher threshold would allow lowering the rate of false positives.

6 **4.1. Our model in context with literature**

7 To our knowledge, this is the first study to develop a risk prediction model of menopause onset
8 relying only on readily available predictors, and to externally validate it. This is in contrast with
9 another prediction model that used readily available predictors and did not perform any form of
10 validation [41].

11 While there was a study which performed external validation (cross-validation), the corresponding
12 prediction models relied on single or multiple hormone measurements [42].

13 The C-statistics of the previously published ANM prediction models ranged between 0.71 to a
14 maximum of 0.95. However, all these models resulted at high risk of bias for at least two domains,
15 when assessed with the PROBAST tool [10].

16 The included predictors in our final model are in line with previous findings, being constantly
17 reported as factors associated with the timing of menopause. A meta-analysis by Taneri et. al.
18 found a protective effect of alcohol consumption in relation to ANM. Low-to-moderate alcohol
19 amounts were linked to a later onset of menopause. In contrast, increased amounts of alcohol
20 consumption, also known as binge drinking, have not shown to play a role at timing of menopause.
21 Even though the underlying mechanisms remain unknown, it is postulated that alcohol
22 consumption might influence hormone levels. While studies exploring the association between

1 alcohol consumption and Follicle Stimulating Hormone levels show contradictory findings, there
2 was a consistent estradiol-raising effect of low to moderate alcohol consumption demonstrated.
3 On the other hand, alcohol consumption could also serve as representation of certain lifestyle
4 habits, including diet and physical activity [13]. Smoking is a well-known risk factor of earlier
5 ANM. It causes irreversible damages of the ovaries by increasing the rate of apoptosis of oocytes,
6 which also explains our findings on former smokers having a higher risk than never smokers [43].
7 Moreover, smoking was also associated with decreased values of Anti-Müllerian Hormone,
8 values those linked to earlier ANM [44]. In line with our research, not only current but also former
9 smoking increases the risk of experiencing an earlier menopause [28]. Literature has been divided
10 when it comes to relation of menopause onset and level of education. However, most of the body
11 of literature supports the hypothesis that more educated women have a later onset of menopause
12 [45]. Lastly in line with our findings, a Mendelian-randomization study showed that women with
13 higher blood pressure have a later onset of menopause[14]. No association was found between
14 BMI and ANM. This goes in line with the growing body of literature on negative findings between
15 BMI and ANM (Table S1).

16 4.2. Strengths and limitations

17 Our study contained a high number of participants experiencing the event of interest, with almost
18 60% of the study sample having experienced the outcome during the follow-up. The high event
19 rate allowed us to obtain reliable estimates of the calibration and performance of our model (Since
20 only events and not the total number of participants contribute to the log partial likelihood of a
21 Cox regression). Moreover, both cohorts have a population-based prospective design. The wide
22 age range increases the possibility of capturing women experiencing early menopause. The readily

1 available predictors permit a cost-effective use of this prediction model within routine care and on
2 a population level, utilizing the risk calculator provided at epistudia.com.

3 Nevertheless, some limitations need to be considered. Both studies used self-reported status of
4 menopause and menopausal age, making it prone to recall bias. Moreover, in the PREVEND
5 cohort, ANM was categorized, losing information on the outcome. Although there might be a
6 potential for misclassifying menopause based on how it was identified (distinguishing between
7 menopause and non-menopausal related amenorrhea), we mitigated this by excluding all women
8 that declared to be post-menopausal at the baseline, reducing the likelihood of such
9 misclassification. Moreover, no woman that declared to be on hormonal contraception declared to
10 have amenorrhea. Having a low number of participants experiencing early and late menopause
11 limits the predictive power of our model in those populations. The mean baseline age in the
12 development cohort was 42.5 ± 4.7 years limiting the generalizability to younger populations.
13 However, both the developing and the validating cohorts contain a wide range of age, including
14 women in their early thirties. Moreover, predictors used in our model have been consistently
15 validated in younger populations as well[46, 47]. The PREVEND cohort used for external
16 validation had also slightly different inclusion criteria (microalbuminuria in otherwise healthy
17 subjects). Participants with microalbuminuria in PREVEND did not show differences in smoking
18 status but were older and had higher blood pressure compared to participants without
19 microalbuminuria. This, alongside the younger baseline age and different outcome incidence as
20 compared to CoLaus could also partially explain why our prediction model was underpredicting
21 in the PREVEND cohort [48]. Lastly, both CoLaus and PREVEND consist of western populations.
22 However, ANM varies between different populations, therefore, we should be reserved when
23 drawing conclusions on the generalizability of our findings [9].

1 **4.3. Implications of our findings and future prospects**

2 We provide an easy-to-use risk prediction model of ANM as a supportive tool for family planning.
3 This prediction model can help women who plan on having children in the future predict their
4 ANM, aiding counseling for the possibilities that assisted reproductive technologies offer. This
5 model can have an impact on the concerning decline in birth rates by providing information
6 relatively early in life about the fertility lifespan and avoid the “infertility trap”. In addition to the
7 scope of use in terms of family planning, this prediction model can be used for timely discussion
8 and consideration of HRT and/or preventive strategies against menopause-related risks and
9 comorbidities. The latter is particularly relevant for women, who are already at risk or have
10 established cardiometabolic, bone diseases, or cancer. Our findings highlight that even former
11 smokers have a higher risk for earlier menopause as opposed to never-smokers, suggesting
12 irreversible damages on the function of the reproductive tract of women. This study also shows an
13 ANM delaying effect of alcohol consumption; however, no safe doses of alcohol consumption
14 have been established, therefore, our findings should not be taken as recommendations for alcohol
15 consumption [49]. To illustrate its utility in clinical practice, the final model and some worked
16 examples can be found in the Box S1 and S2(supplementary Materials)[30].

17 Efforts should be made to validate this model in other European and non-European populations.
18 There are also possibilities to improve this model with other easily accessible predictors or
19 standard hormone assays. As an example, mothers’ ANM has been proven to be a strong predictor
20 of daughter’s ANM, an information lacking in our cohorts. Moreover, further research should be
21 done on other factors such as omics or genetic risk scores for a more personalized approach.
22 Methodological limitations of currently available prediction models underscore the need for

1 methodological rigor, exploring and validating the true potential of hormonal and non-hormonal
2 models to predict time to menopause.

3

4 **5. Conclusion**

5 We provide the first internally and externally validated risk prediction model of natural menopause
6 onset consisting of age, smoking status, educational level, alcohol consumption and systolic blood
7 pressure- all readily available predictors. Validation in other populations and adapted variable
8 selection may further increase its clinical utility and predictive capacity in the future.

9

10 **CoLaus study**

11 **Funding**

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13 Biology and Medicine of Lausanne, the Swiss National Science Foundation (grants 33CSO-
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15 Personalized Health Network (grant 2018DRI01).

16 **Data availability**

17 The data of CoLaus|PsyCoLaus study used in this article cannot be fully shared as they contain
18 potentially sensitive personal information on participants. According to the Ethics Committee for
19 Research of the Canton of Vaud, sharing these data would be a violation of the Swiss legislation
20 with respect to privacy protection. However, coded individual-level data that do not allow
21 researchers to identify participants are available upon request to researchers who meet the criteria
22 for data sharing of the CoLaus|PsyCoLaus Datacenter (CHUV, Lausanne, Switzerland). Any
23 researcher affiliated to a public or private research institution who complies with the
24 CoLaus|PsyCoLaus standards can submit a research application to research.colaus@chuv.ch or
25 research.psycolaus@chuv.ch. Proposals requiring baseline data only, will be evaluated by the

1 baseline (local) Scientific Committee (SC) of the CoLaus and PsyCoLaus studies. Proposals
2 requiring follow-up data will be evaluated by the follow-up (multicentric) SC of the
3 CoLaus|PsyCoLaus cohort study. Detailed instructions for gaining access to the
4 CoLaus|PsyCoLaus data used in this study are available at [www.colaus-
5 psycolaus.ch/professionals/how-to-collaborate/](http://www.colaus-psycolaus.ch/professionals/how-to-collaborate/).

6 **Conflict of interest**

7 The authors report no conflict of interest.

9 **PREVEND study**

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13 interpretation of the current study, nor did it contribute to the current manuscript."

15 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

16 The data underlying the results presented in this study can be made available by the data manager
17 of the PREVEND study, Ms. Lyanne Kieneker, l.m.kieneker@umcg.nl. Public sharing of
18 individual participant data was not included in the informed consent form of the study, but data
19 can be made available to interested researchers upon reasonable request.

20 **Conflict of interest**

21 The authors report no conflict of interest.

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1 **Table 1.** List of candidate predictors chosen from literature

Candidate predictors	Studies that have shown a relation	No relation shown
Age	[15-17]	
Education	[15, 18-21]	[22, 23]
Smoking	[15-18, 20-24]	
Drinking-alcohol intake	[13, 16]	
Marital status	[20, 22]	[18, 21]
Body mass index	[23, 25]	[15, 18, 20, 22, 26]
Number of children/parity	[15, 16, 18, 20, 23]	[21, 26]
Oral contraceptives	[18, 20]	[26]
Age at menarche	[15, 18]	[23, 27]
Employment	[15, 17-20]	[18, 22]
Blood pressure	[14]	[26]

2

3

1 **Table 2.** General baseline characteristics of all eligible participants from CoLaus and PREVEND
 2 cohorts

Characteristics	CoLaus (n=750)	PREVEND (n=1032)
Postmenopausal <i>n (%)</i>	445 (59.3)	387 (37.5)
Early menopause <i>n (%)</i>	14 (1.9)	52 (5.04)
Late menopause <i>n (%)</i>	34 (4.5)	56 (5.4)
Age, years	42.5 ± 4.7	39.2 ± 6.04
Smoking <i>n (%)</i>		
Never	348 (46.4)	369 (35.8)
Former	216 (28.8)	345 (33.4)
Current	186 (24.8)	318 (30.8)
Systolic BP, mm Hg	114 (106.5 - 122)	115 (106 - 122)
Arterial Hypertension <i>n (%)</i>	85 (11.3)	37 (3.6)
Anti-Hypertensive treatment <i>n (%)</i>	38 (5.1)	37 (3.6)
BMI, kg/m ²	22.83 (20.75 - 25.86)	-
Education <i>n (%)</i>		
Low	192 (25.6)	241 (23.4)
Middle	227 (30.3)	646 (62.7)
High	331 (44.1)	139 (13.9)
Alcohol use <i>n (%)</i>	531 (68.4)	778 (75.4)
Parity <i>n (%)</i>	535 (71.3)	-
Birth control pills <i>n (%)</i>	661 (88.1)	-

Age at Menarche, years	13.2 ± 0.5	-
Living in couple <i>n</i> (%)	485 (64.7)	-
Employed <i>n</i> (%)	621 (82.8)	-

1 Data are means ±SD or median (interquartile range), or *n* (%) where indicated; BP- Blood Pressure. BMI-Body Mass Index; Early (premature
2 ovarian insufficiency<40 years and early menopause 40-45 years) and Late menopause (ANM>55 years)

3 -In CoLaus hypertension was defined as SBP ≥ 140 mm Hg, and/or DBP ≥ 90 mm Hg, and/or the use of antihypertensive medication.

4 -In PREVEND Hypertension was defined systolic blood pressure (SBP) ≥140 and/or diastolic blood pressure (DBP) ≥90 mmHg [4], without
5 a CV disease history and not using blood pressure-lowering agents

6 -In CoLaus, blood pressure (BP) was measured thrice on the left arm with an appropriately sized cuff, after at least a 10 min rest in the seated
7 position using an Omron® HEM-907 automated oscillometric sphygmomanometer, and the average of the last two measurements was used.

8 -In PREVEND, BP was calculated as mean from two seated measurements using an automatic Dinamap XL Model 9300 series device .

9 -In ColaUs, education was categorized into low(compulsory education, apprenticeship), medium (High school degree and Secondary S chool) and
10 High (University Education).

11 - In PREVEND, educational level was categorized into low (no, primary, basic vocational and secondary education), middle (senior secondary
12 vocational and general senior secondary education), and high (higher professional and higher academic education).

13 - Only information on predictors that were included in the final model is available for the PREVEND cohort.

14

15

16 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

17 **Figure A** Calibration plot in the external validation dataset

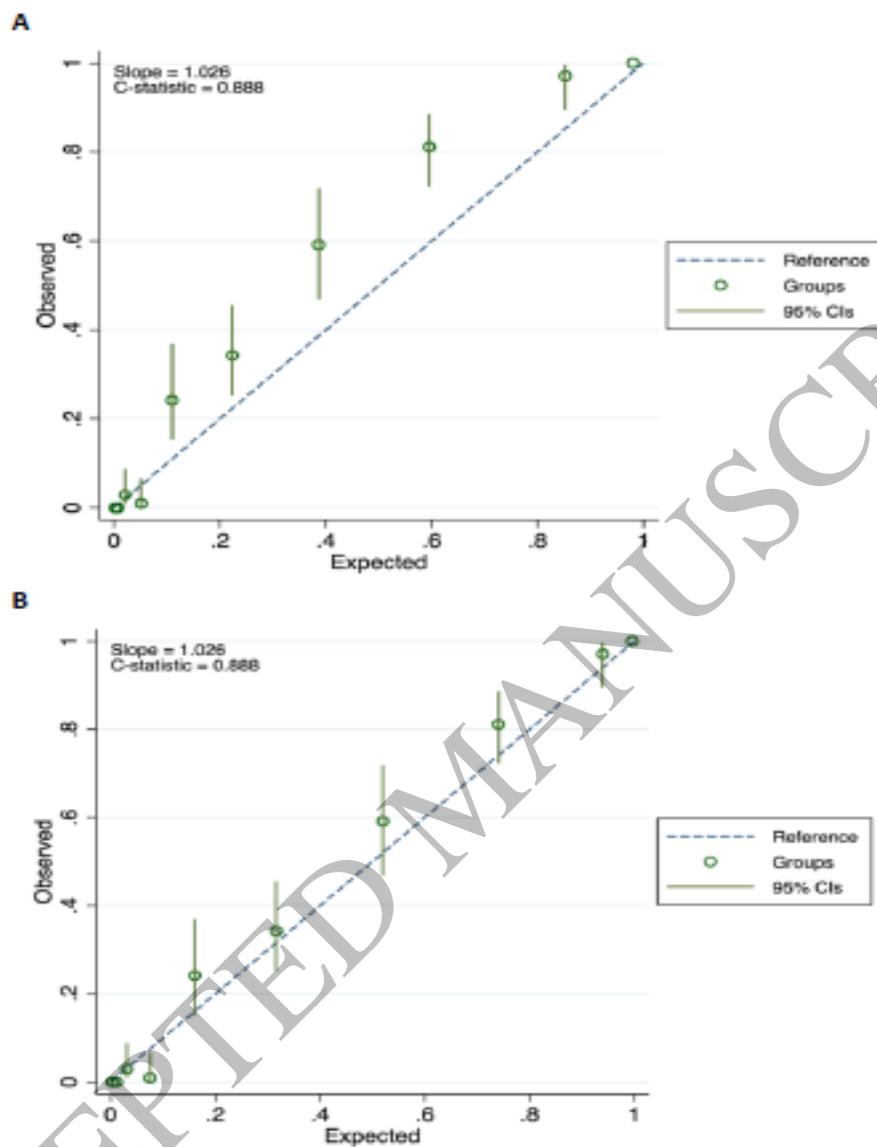
18 The calibration plot shows that the predictions are lower than the observed probabilities with
19 most of the points lying above the reference line.

20 **Figure B** Calibration plot after external validation (recalibrating the intercept)

21 Predictions now lie closer to the observed probabilities.

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Figure A,B
114x143 mm (x DPI)