

Does climacteric status impact the regulation of the autonomic nervous system at the age of 46?

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Abstract

Objective

To investigate whether an earlier-onset climacteric phase is associated with autonomic imbalance at the age of 46.

Methods

This cross-sectional birth cohort study included 2,661 46-year-old women. Participants were divided into climacteric (n=359) and preclimacteric (n=2,302) groups based on menstrual history and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) values. Mean heart rate (HR), low frequency (LF) power, high frequency (HF) power, and the LF/HF ratio were analyzed from heart rate variability (HRV) recordings. The variables were compared between the groups using multivariable linear regression models, including body mass index (BMI), smoking, and physical activity (PA). The effects of hormone therapy (HT) and hot flashes on autonomic function were evaluated in subanalyses.

Results

Climacteric women had a lower mean HR in seated (71.9 ± 10.5 vs 72.6 ± 10.4 bpm, $P = 0.015$) and standing (81.2 ± 12.8 vs 83.6 ± 12.1 bpm, $P = 0.002$) positions compared to preclimacteric women, and the differences remained significant after the adjustments. In the subanalyses, more frequent hot flashes were associated with a lower LF power and LF/HF ratio in the sitting position.

Conclusions

The present study suggested an association between greater parasympathetic activation in women with more advanced climacteric status at the age of 46.

Keywords: autonomic function; heart rate variability; hot flashes; early menopause; menopause

Introduction

Climacterium is a normal phase of aging that starts from the decline in ovarian function and lasts until ovarian activity ends [1]. This phase includes the last menstrual period, called menopause, which occurs in Western countries at a median age of 50–51 years [2]. Early menopause (EM) has been defined as a condition in which menopause occurs at the age of 40–44 [3]. Menopause before the age of 40 is termed premature ovarian insufficiency (POI) [4]. After menopause, endogenous estrogen synthesis declines, which contributes to an increased risk for cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) [5,6]. Women with EM and POI have an increased CVD risk and mortality [7,8], which may be due to the early cessation of ovarian estrogen production [9].

Studies have shown that ovarian hormones, and estrogen especially, have a beneficial influence on the autonomic nervous system (ANS), which regulates cardiovascular function. Estrogen reduces the sympathetic drive and increases parasympathetic activity [10,11]. In menopausal transition, the autonomic balance is shifted toward sympathetic hyperactivity, which increases the risk for CVDs [12,13]. One of the non-invasive methods used to assess autonomic imbalance and risk of diseases and mortality is heart rate variability (HRV) [14,15]. Hormonal changes after the average age of menopause, the aging process, and physical inactivity are all associated with modifications in autonomic cardiovascular control, such as a reduction in HRV [13,16,17]. The evidence on the effects of hormone therapy (HT) on autonomic cardiovascular control is contradictory. In some studies, HT increased HRV [10,18], but in others there was no effect [19–21].

In previous studies, earlier climacterium has been associated with unfavorable metabolic changes and impaired insulin sensitivity [22,23]. However, the association between autonomic cardiovascular control and earlier menopausal transition has been less studied. In the current population-based study, we aimed to investigate whether an earlier-onset climacteric phase was associated with autonomic imbalance by analyzing HRV in study groups divided by climacteric status at the age of 46.

Material and methods

Study population

The Northern Finland Birth Cohort (NFBC1966) is a large, prospective, population-based birth cohort that comprises 12,058 live births in 1966 in the Northern Finnish provinces of Oulu and Lapland [24]. The cohort covers 96.3% of all live births of the mothers in the cohort with an estimated date of delivery during 1966 in the two provinces [25]. Members of the cohort have been followed since the antenatal period through age 46 with questionnaires and clinical examinations. During adulthood, the latest data collection point has been at the age of 46. Postal questionnaires and invitations to clinical examination were sent to every living cohort member with a known address. Menstrual history, smoking, level of education, marital status, and frequency of hot flashes were queried in the questionnaire. Clinical examinations at the age of 46 included the assessment of cardiovascular health status and the evaluation of HRV. Also, weight, height, and serum follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) values were measured during the examinations. The NFBC1966 data have been linked to several Finnish registers and databases, and hence medication purchases, based on the Social Insurance

Institution of Finland's statistics on Reimbursements for Prescription Medicines, were available.

Study groups

The flow chart of the study is shown in Figure 1. Based on menstrual history and FSH values, the female cohort members who participated in the 46-year follow-up were divided into climacteric (late perimenopausal and postmenopausal women) and preclimacteric (premenopausal and early perimenopausal women) groups. The Stages of Reproductive Aging Workshop +10 staging system criteria for menopausal transition were used to divide the groups as there are no general criteria for climacterium [26]. The criteria for the climacteric group were as follows: (1) FSH value >25 IU/L, and (2) time since last menstrual period \geq 60 days. The criteria for the preclimacteric group were the following: (1) FSH value \leq 25 IU/L, and (2) time since last menstrual period <60 days. The immunochemiluminometric method (Advia Centaur XP; Siemens Healthcare Diagnostics Inc., Tarrytown, NY) was used to determine the FSH values.

Women were classified by only the FSH value if they were hysterectomized or had progestin-only treatment (peroral, capsule, intrauterine device). We excluded combined estrogen-progestin contraceptive pill or ring users and tamoxifen users as well as women with a discrepancy between FSH values and menstrual anamnesis. Systemic HT users were found using national registers for prescription medications, and they were included in the climacteric group. A participant was classified as an HT user if she purchased systemic HT (Anatomical Therapeutic Chemical [ATC] codes starting with G03C and G03F) during the year prior to the 46-year clinical examination. Women who did not give permission to use

their medication register data were excluded. Participants using beta-blockers (ATC codes starting with C07) were also identified from the medicine reimbursement register and were excluded from the HRV analysis.

[Figure 1 near here]

Evaluation of cardiac autonomic function

We evaluated cardiovascular autonomic function by means of HRV at the 46-year clinical examination. To assess HRV, an HR monitor (RS800CK; Polar Electro Oy, Kempele, Finland) was used to record R-R intervals (RRi) to an accuracy of 1 ms. After preparations, participants' HR was allowed to stabilize for 1 min in a seated position before the first 3-min recording was made, also while seated. Then, the participant actively stood up and the second 3-min recording was made while standing up.

HRV analysis

We analyzed the first 150 s of the sitting data and the last 150 s of the standing data. Based on visual inspections, the RRi data were edited, and artefacts and ectopic beats were removed and replaced by the local average (Hearts 1.2; University of Oulu, Oulu, Finland). Sequences with ≥ 10 consecutive beats of noise or ectopic beats were deleted. The RRi series with $\geq 80\%$ accepted data were included in the analyses. Mean HR (bpm), low frequency (LF: 0.04–0.15 Hz, ms^2) power, and high frequency (HF: 0.15–0.40 Hz, ms^2) power, as well as their ratio (LF/HF), were analyzed from the data. HF power is considered as a marker of parasympathetic activity, whereas LF power is mainly considered as a marker of sympathetic

activity, but also parasympathetic activity and other factors can affect LF power [15,27,28]. The LF/HF ratio has been used to estimate the sympatho-vagal balance, but the complex origin of LF power makes conclusions limited [28].

Cardiorespiratory fitness

At the 46-year examination, the participants also performed a submaximal 4-min single-step test to measure their cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF), thereby permitting the evaluation of autonomic function. Stepping was performed without shoes on a 33-cm-high bench with a stepping rate of 23 ascents per min paced by a metronome [29]. HR was measured 90 s after (HR_{FINAL}) stepping in a seated position (RS800CX). Of the study groups, 251 climacteric women and 1,771 preclimacteric women successfully performed the test.

Covariates

In previous studies, higher physical activity (PA) [29,30], more optimal body mass index (BMI) [29,31], and non-smoking [32] have been associated with better autonomic function as measured by HRV. In the multivariable adjusted linear model, these potential contributing factors were taken into account in the analyses. PA was measured with a wrist-worn Polar Active device (Polar Electro Oy, Kempele, Finland), which participants were asked to wear continuously for at least 14 days on the nondominant wrist. PA was calculated as metabolic equivalent of task (MET) scores in min per day based on the frequency and duration of PA over the entire measured period. BMI values were divided into three classes: ≤ 25.0 , 25.01–30.0, >30.01 kg/m². Based on the questionnaire, participants were classified as current non-smokers or smokers.

Statistical analyses

Pearson's chi-square test and a Mann-Whitney U-test were used to compare the distribution of background variables between climacteric and preclimacteric women. To compare HRV variables between the study groups, an independent-samples t-test was used for distributed continuous variables and a Mann-Whitney U-test for skewed continuous variables. We also calculated Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted P-values to evaluate the possibility that our significant findings occurred by chance. Multivariable generalized linear models were used to investigate the association between autonomic function and climacteric status at age 46. In the models, HRV variables were dependent variables and climacteric status, PA, BMI, and smoking were independent variables. For the analysis, a logarithmic transformation was conducted to normalize the distribution of HRV variables with a skewed distribution (HF, LF, LF/HF).

To evaluate the effects of HT and hot flashes on autonomic cardiovascular control, we performed subanalyses in which we included only the climacteric participants. All HRV variables were first compared between climacteric HT users and nonusers with an independent-samples t-test or a Mann-Whitney U-test. Two separate multivariable generalized linear models were also executed. In the first model, HRV variables were dependent variables, and the use of HT, PA, BMI, and smoking were independent variables. In the second model, HRV variables were dependent variables and frequency of hot flashes, PA, BMI, and smoking were independent variables.

Two-way interaction terms were tested in all of the generalized linear models, and only the significant interactions were included in the final models. IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows,

Version 24.0 (IBM, Armonk, NY) was used for analyses. P-values of <0.05 were considered statistically significant.

Results

The final study population consisted of 336 climacteric women and 2,146 preclimacteric women (Fig. 1). Background characteristics of the study population are shown in Table 1. Climacteric women were significantly more often current smokers (22.9% vs 16.5%, $P = 0.006$), and a higher proportion of them reported that they had hot flashes sometimes or more often (34.2% vs 10.1%, $P < 0.001$). Other baseline characteristics did not differ between the study groups.

[Table 1 near here]

The results of the HRV variables between the study groups are shown in Table 2. Climacteric women had a significantly lower mean HR in the seated position (HR_{SIT} , 71.9 ± 10.5 vs 72.6 ± 10.4 bpm, $P = 0.015$) and the standing position (HR_{STAND} , 81.2 ± 12.8 vs 83.6 ± 12.1 bpm, $P = 0.002$) compared to preclimacteric women. The Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted P-value was significant in the standing position (HR_{STAND} , $P^* = 0.018$). Other variables did not differ between the groups.

[Table 2 near here]

In the multivariate linear regression model of HRV variables, climacteric status, smoking, BMI, and PA were used as independent variables. Being climacteric was associated with a

significantly lower mean HR in the seated position (HR_{SIT} , adjusted β coefficient = -1.56, 95% CI -2.83 to -0.288, $P = 0.016$) and the standing position (HR_{STAND} , adjusted β coefficient = -2.43, 95% CI -3.94 to -0.917, $P = 0.002$) compared to preclimacteric women. A BMI ≥ 30.01 was associated with higher HR_{SIT} and HR_{STAND} and higher PA with lower HR_{SIT} and HR_{STAND} . The results are shown in Figure 2. Other HRV variables did not differ between the groups and were not associated with climacteric status (data not shown).

[Figure 2 near here]

In the subanalyses, only the climacteric participants were included. HRV variables did not significantly differ between climacteric HT users and nonusers (data not shown). In the first multivariate linear regression model of HRV variables, use of HT, smoking, BMI, and PA were used as independent variables. Use of HT was not significantly associated with any of the HRV variables (data not shown). The second model consisted of hot flashes, smoking, BMI, and PA as independent variables. More frequent hot flashes were associated with significantly lower LF power in the seated position (LF_{SIT} , adjusted β coefficient = -0.565, 95% CI -1.10 to -0.026, $P = 0.040$) and LF/HF ratio in the seated position (LF/HF_{SIT} , adjusted β coefficient = -0.625, 95% CI -1.10 to -0.147, $P = 0.010$) (Fig. 3).

[Figure 3 near here]

Discussion

In this population-based cohort study, the HRV variables were mainly similar between the groups. However, women who were climacteric at the age of 46 had a lower mean HR in both

seated and standing positions, suggesting increased parasympathetic activity compared to preclimacteric women. The difference remained significant after adjusting for BMI, smoking, and physical activity. Earlier studies concerning the associations between menopause and ANS regulation were mainly performed among women who had reached the natural age of menopause, in their 50s [13,16,33,34].

Autonomic imbalance has been suggested to play a role in menopausal hot flashes, but the relationship between ANS regulation and hot flashes is not totally understood [35]. Studies have reported decreases in parasympathetic activity during hot flashes [36,37], but increases in sympathetic activation have also been observed [38,39]. In the present study, more frequent hot flashes were associated with a lower LF power and LF/HF ratio in the sitting position in the climacteric group, suggesting decreased sympathetic activity and parasympathetic dominance. Greater parasympathetic activation with more frequent and severe hot flashes among perimenopausal and postmenopausal women have also been previously reported [40]. However, some studies have not found an association between resting autonomic function and hot flash frequency or severity [38,41].

Contrary to our findings, earlier studies have associated menopause at around the age of 50 with a decrease in HRV, which is related to sympathetic hyperactivity and a reduction in parasympathetic activity [13,33]. A decline in estrogen during climacterium has been suggested to be a contributing factor to these findings [10,11,34], and attenuated HRV is especially seen after surgical menopause when estrogen suddenly decreases [12]. However, the autonomic balance shifts toward sympathetic activity also during the physiological aging process [42], and the role of menopause remains unclear [16]. Some evidence even suggests that the aging process itself explains these findings rather than estrogen deprivation [43]. In

another cross-sectional study, there was no clinically important relationship between cardiovascular autonomic control and menopausal status [44]. Compared to our study, the women were older, and the age difference was significant between premenopausal and postmenopausal women.

In the subanalysis of the study, use of HT was not associated with HRV variables in the climacteric group. Some earlier studies have reported beneficial effects of HT on HRV [10,18,33], but other studies have reported no effect [19,20,45]. Different study methods and HT regimens could partly explain these conflicting findings. Also, some studies were placebo-controlled [45], whereas others were not [18]. The association of HT and ANS function was not the main focus of this study, and due to the low number of HT users, the comparison of different regimens and doses was not possible.

There were several strengths in our study. We had a large sample of climacteric and preclimacteric women who took part in the RRi recordings, and multiple HRV variables were analyzed. Climacteric status was determined with both FSH values and menstrual history, and the use of hormonal preparations was also taken into account. Reliable sources were used to retrieve information on HT and beta-blocker use, as we used nationwide registry data. It is known that HRV is affected by aging [16,42,46], PA [29,30,47], BMI [29,31], and smoking [32]. All of our study participants were at the same age, and PA, BMI, and smoking were included in the adjusted models. PA was comprehensively investigated with a wrist-worn device. Many earlier studies investigating the regulation of the ANS and menopause did not take all of these contributing factors into account [13,16,33,34].

A limitation of this study was the cross-sectional setting, as the evaluation of HRV was conducted only once, at the age of 46. Also, some female participants from the original cohort were lost to follow-up. However, we believe that participation was not affected by menopausal status. Changes in body functions during menopausal transition are mainly mediated by decreasing estrogen levels. Unfortunately, estrogen levels were not measured in this study. We suggest that estrogen levels may have been variable but mainly low in the climacteric group. As adverse changes in cardiovascular risk factors already occur during menopausal transition [48], we found it relevant to investigate ANS function in this study setting. In our study, HRV parameters were used to assess cardiac autonomic function, but it should be considered that other measures are also used to investigate dysfunction in the ANS [49]. Also, we did not study the regulation of peripheral vascular tone, which would have yielded additional information about autonomic function [50]. For the HRV analysis, a longer recording time would have been more optimal, although our 150-s recording period should be reliable [15]. In addition, there may be other contributing factors affecting HRV that could not all be taken into account in the analyses.

Conclusions

Unlike earlier studies investigating the association between the ANS and menopause, we found no association between sympathetic nervous system activity and climacteric status. Our study consisted of women in their mid-40s, while previous studies have investigated the ANS in women facing menopause around the age of 50. Despite the mainly similar findings between the groups, some findings suggested parasympathetic dominance in women who were perimenopausal or postmenopausal at the age of 46. Greater parasympathetic activation was also seen in climacteric women who had more frequent hot flashes. The connection between

ANS regulation and menopause is complex and affected by several confounding factors, also among women facing menopause in their mid-40s. The present study provides novel information about the association between early-onset climacteric transition and regulation of the ANS and enhances understanding of the complex physiology of menopausal symptoms.

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Declaration of interest

The authors declare no potential conflicts of interest.

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477 **Table 1.** Background characteristics of the study population.

	Climacteric	Preclimacteric	P-value
BMI (kg/m ²) (N, %)			0.786 ^a
≤25.0	154 (48.3)	1,010 (47.2)	
25.01–30.0	106 (33.2)	698 (32.6)	
≥30.01	59 (18.5)	432 (20.2)	
Smoking (N, %)			0.006 ^a
Non-smoker	249 (77.1)	1,729 (83.5)	
Current smoker	74 (22.9)	341 (16.5)	
Physical activity in MET (min/d)	56.1 (39.4–74.9)	57.4 (40.8–77.1)	0.233 ^b
(Median, IQR)			
Education (N, %)			0.124 ^a
Basic	24 (7.3)	105 (5.0)	
Secondary	216 (65.3)	1,328 (63.6)	
Tertiary	91 (27.5)	655 (31.4)	
Marital status (N, %)			0.892 ^a
Unmarried	31(9.4)	200 (9.6)	
Married/domestic partnership	264 (79.8)	1,629 (78.2)	
Divorced	34 (10.3)	243 (11.7)	
Widow	2 (0.6)	11 (0.5)	
Frequency of hot flashes (N, %)			<0.001 ^a
Never to rarely	221 (65.8)	1,929 (89.9)	
Sometimes to often	115 (34.2)	217 (10.1)	

478 IQR, interquartile range; MET, metabolic equivalent of task.

479 ^a Pearson’s chi-square test. ^b Mann-Whitney U-test.

480 **Table 2.** Heart rate variability (HRV) variables in climacteric and preclimacteric women in
481 seated and standing positions.

Outcome		N	Mean \pm SD/median [IQR]	P-value	P-value*
HR _{SIT} (bpm)	Climacteric	300	71.9 \pm 10.5	0.015 ^a	0.068
	Preclimacteric	2,030	72.6 \pm 10.4		
HR _{STAND} (bpm)	Climacteric	300	81.2 \pm 12.8	0.002 ^a	0.018
	Preclimacteric	2,030	83.6 \pm 12.1		
LF _{SIT} (ms ²)	Climacteric	300	301 [165–599]	0.682 ^b	0.877
	Preclimacteric	2,030	301 [158–552]		
LF _{STAND} (ms ²)	Climacteric	300	200 [111–412]	0.459 ^b	0.826
	Preclimacteric	2,030	205 [107–370]		
HF _{SIT} (ms ²)	Climacteric	300	241 [110–576]	0.930 ^b	0.930
	Preclimacteric	2,030	258 [113–550]		
HF _{STAND} (ms ²)	Climacteric	300	95 [42.0–190]	0.178 ^b	0.401
	Preclimacteric	2,030	78 [33.0–178]		
LF/HF _{SIT}	Climacteric	300	1.22 [0.74–2.27]	0.811 ^b	0.912
	Preclimacteric	2,029	1.22 [0.70–2.29]		
LF/HF _{STAND}	Climacteric	300	2.47 [1.47–4.50]	0.150 ^b	0.450
	Preclimacteric	2,029	2.70 [1.53–4.86]		
HR _{FINAL} (bpm)	Climacteric	251	149 \pm 15.5	0.627 ^a	0.941
	Preclimacteric	1,884	149 \pm 14.7		

482 HF, high frequency (0.15–0.4 Hz) power; HR, heart rate; IQR, interquartile range; LF, low
483 frequency (0.04–0.15 Hz) power; SD, standard deviation.

484 ^a Independent-samples t-test. ^b Mann-Whitney U-test. *Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted P-value.

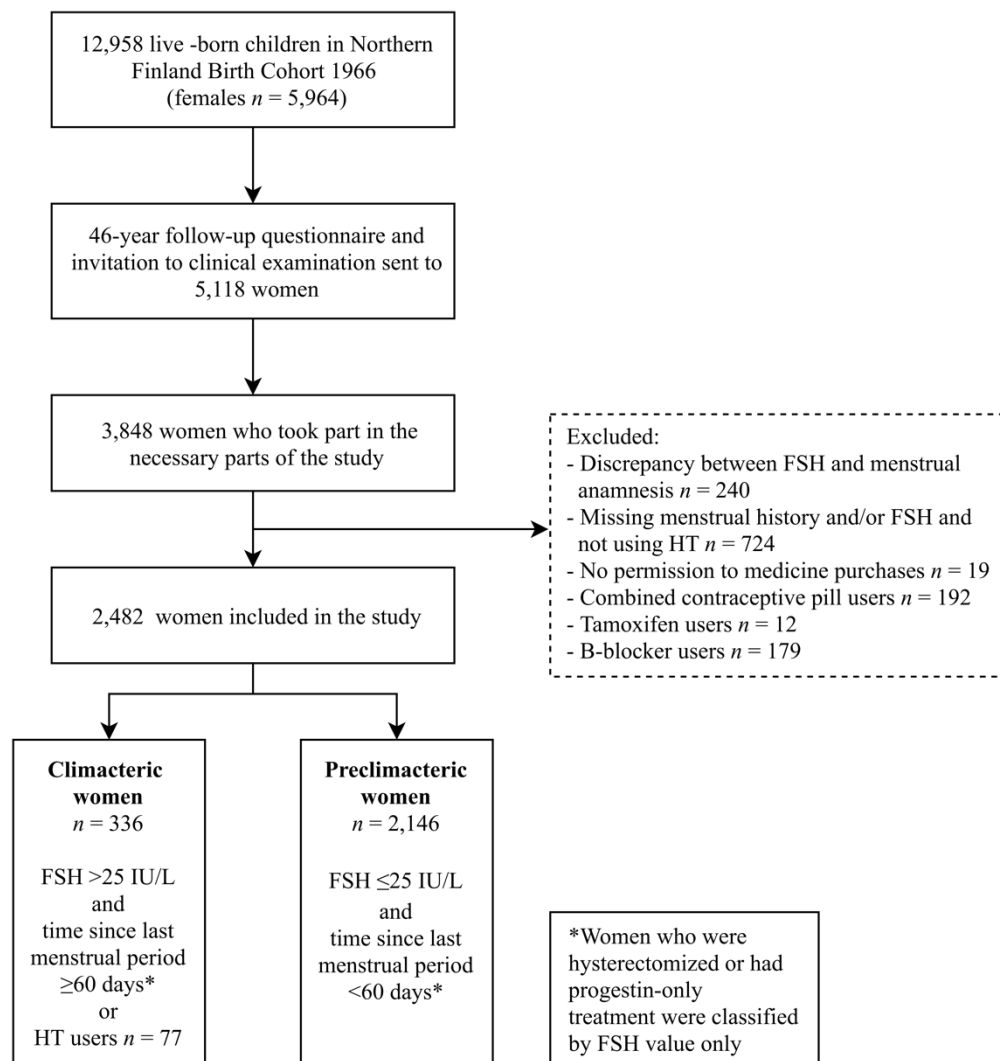
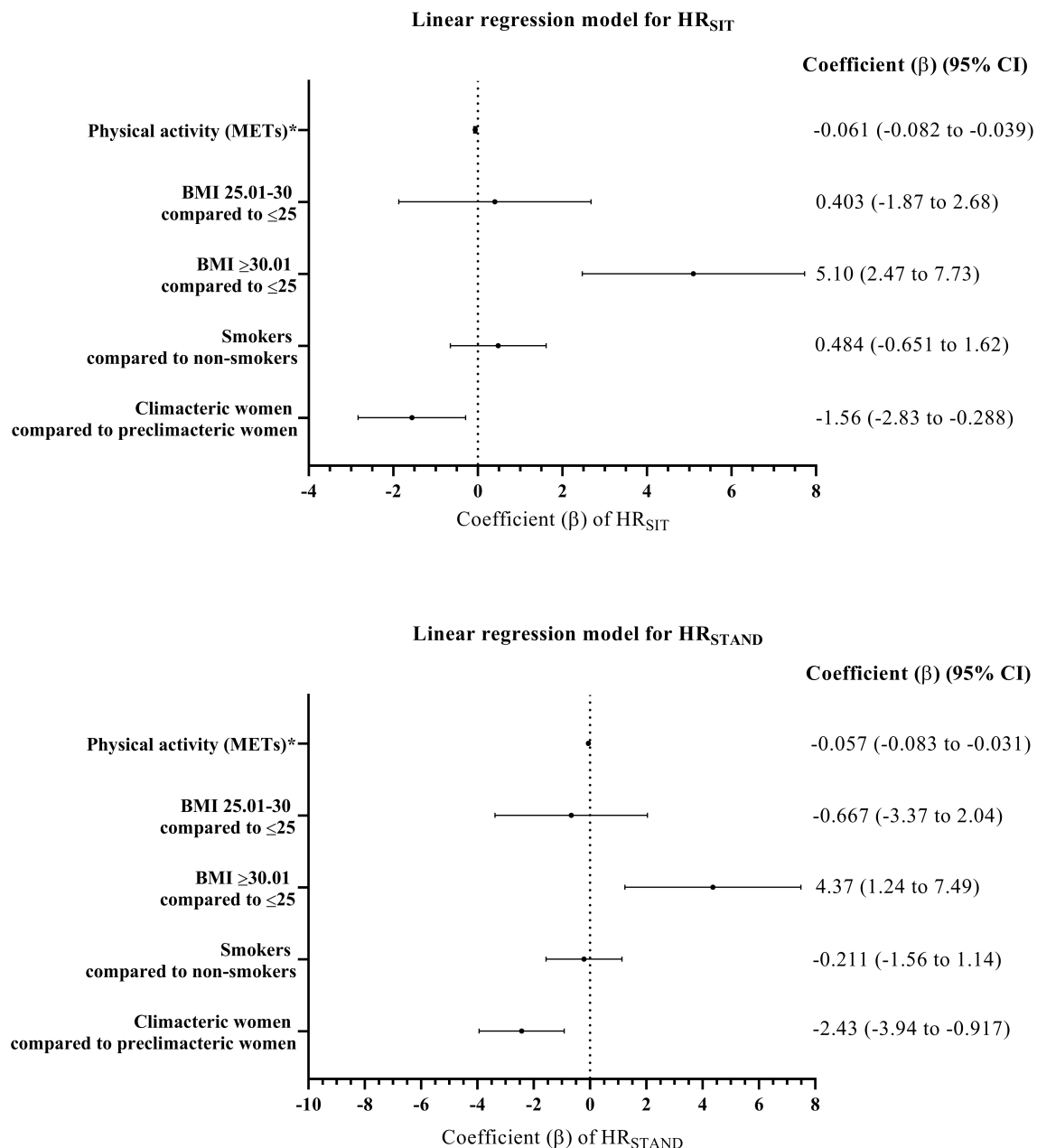


Figure 1. Flow chart of the study population. FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone; HT, hormone therapy.



488

489 **Figure 2.** Mean HR in climacteric and preclimacteric women in seated and standing
 490 positions. In the multivariable linear regression models, HR measurements were the
 491 dependent variables, and climacteric status, smoking, BMI, and physical activity were the
 492 independent variables. Physical activity in MET (min/d) served as the continuous variable and
 493 is marked with *. Interactions included in the final model of HR_{SIT}: BMI*physical activity.

494 Interactions included in the final model of HR_{STAND} : BMI*physical activity. BMI, body mass
495 index; CI, confidence interval; HR, heart rate; MET, metabolic equivalent of task.

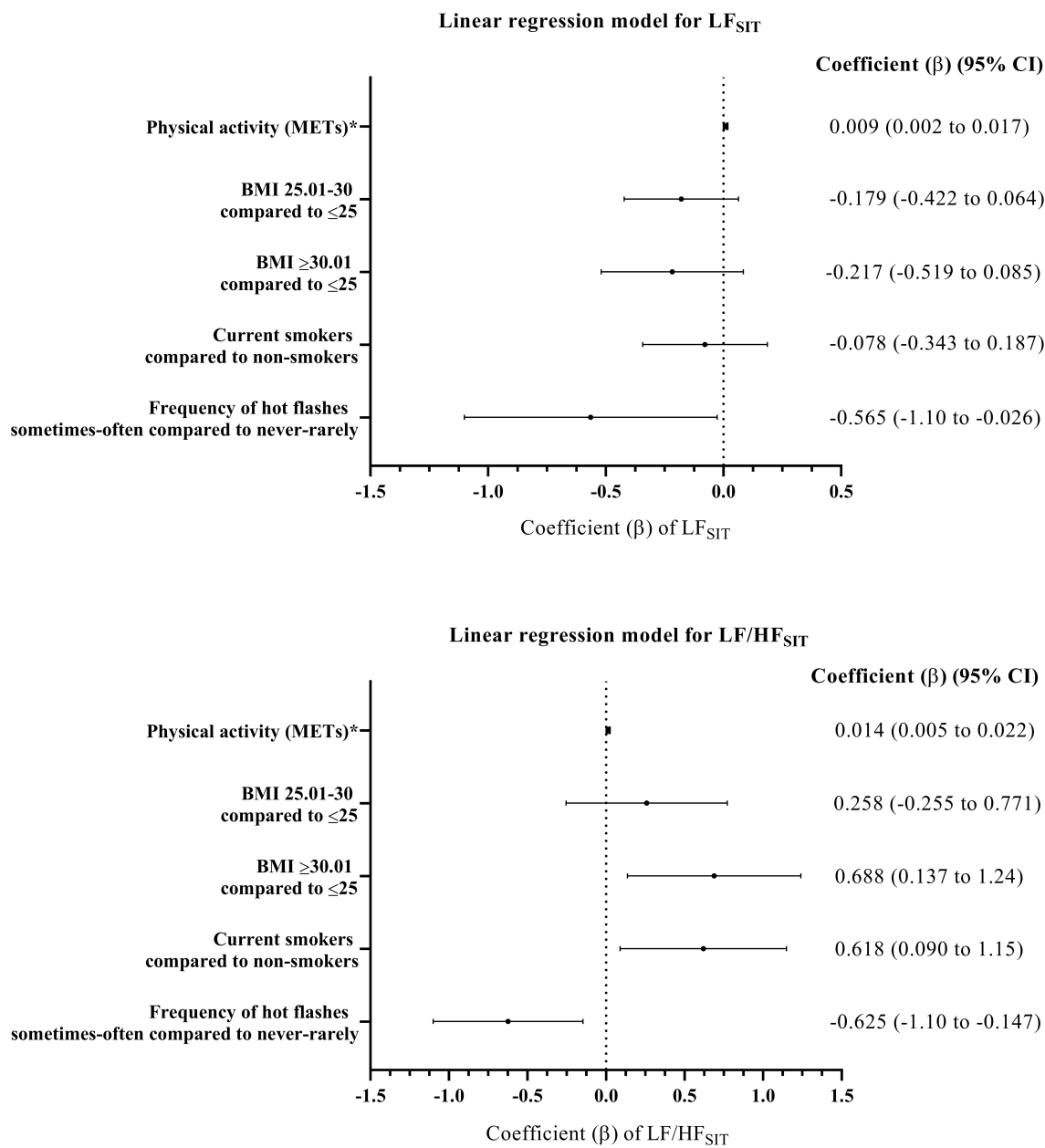


Figure 3. LF and LF/HF ratio in climacteric women in the seated position. In the multivariate linear regression models, LF and LF/HF measurements were the dependent variables, and frequency of hot flashes, smoking, BMI, and physical activity were the independent variables. Physical activity in MET (min/d) served as the continuous variable and is marked with *. Interactions included in the final model of LF_{SIT}: Hot flashes*physical activity. Interactions included in the final model of LF/HF_{SIT}: Hot flashes*physical activity, smoking*physical

504 activity, BMI*physical activity. BMI, body mass index; CI, confidence interval; HF, high
505 frequency (0.15–0.4 Hz) power; LF, low frequency (0.04–0.15 Hz) power; MET, metabolic
506 equivalent of task.

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