

1 **Associations of childhood adiposity with menstrual irregularity and**  
2 **polycystic ovary syndrome in adulthood: The Childhood Determinants of**  
3 **Adult Health Study and the Bogalusa Heart Study**

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15 **Running title:** Childhood adiposity, menstrual irregularity and PCOS

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21 **Abstract**

22 **STUDY QUESTION:** Is high adiposity in childhood associated with menstrual irregularity  
23 and polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) in later life?

24 **SUMMARY ANSWER:** Overall, greater childhood BMI was associated with menstrual  
25 irregularity, and greater childhood BMI and waist/height ratio (WHtR) in white but not black  
26 participants were associated with PCOS in adulthood.

27 **WHAT IS KNOWN ALREADY:** Increased childhood BMI has been associated with  
28 irregular menstrual cycles and PCOS symptoms in adulthood in two longitudinal population-  
29 based studies, but no study has reported on associations with childhood abdominal obesity.  
30 Few studies have investigated whether there are racial differences in the associations of  
31 adiposity with PCOS though there has been some suggestion that associations with high BMI  
32 may be stronger in white girls than in black girls.

33 **STUDY DESIGN, SIZE, DURATION:** The study included 1,516 participants (aged 26-41  
34 years) from the Australian Childhood Determinants of Adult Health study (CDAH) and 1,247  
35 participants (aged 26-57 years) from the biracial USA Babies sub-study of the Bogalusa  
36 Heart Study (BBS) who were aged 7-15 years at baseline. At follow-up, questions were asked  
37 about menstruation (current for CDAH or before age 40 years for BBS), ever having had a  
38 diagnosis of PCOS and symptoms of PCOS.

39 **PARTICIPANTS/MATERIALS, SETTING, METHODS:** In CDAH, a single childhood  
40 visit was conducted in 1985. In BBS, multiple childhood visits occurred from 1973 to 2000  
41 and race was reported (59% white; 41% black). In childhood, overweight and obesity were  
42 defined by international age-sex-specific standards for BMI and WHtR was considered as an  
43 indicator of abdominal obesity. Multilevel mixed-effects Poisson regression estimated

44 relative risks (RRs) adjusting for childhood age, highest parental and own education, and age  
45 at menarche.

46 **MAIN RESULTS AND THE ROLE OF CHANCE:** The prevalence of childhood obesity  
47 was 1.1% in CDAH and 7.5% in BBS. At follow-up, menstrual irregularity was reported by  
48 16.7% of CDAH and 24.5% of BBS participants. The prevalence of PCOS was 7.4% in  
49 CDAH and 8.0% in BBS participants. In CDAH, childhood obesity was associated with  
50 menstrual irregularity (RR=2.84, 95% CI:1.63-4.96) and PCOS (RR=4.05, 95% CI:1.10-  
51 14.83) in adulthood. With each 0.01 unit increase in childhood WHtR there was a 6% (95%  
52 CI: 1%-11%) greater likelihood of PCOS. Overall, in BBS, childhood obesity was associated  
53 with increased risk of menstrual irregularity (RR=1.44, 95% CI: 1.08-1.92) in adulthood.  
54 Significant interaction effects between race and childhood adiposity were detected in  
55 associations with PCOS. In BBS white participants, childhood obesity was associated with  
56 PCOS (RR=2.93, 95% CI: 1.65-5.22) and a 0.01 unit increase in childhood WHtR was  
57 associated with an 11% (95% CI: 5%-17%) greater likelihood of PCOS in adulthood. In BBS  
58 black participants, no statistically significant associations of childhood adiposity measures  
59 with PCOS were observed.

60 **LIMITATIONS, REASONS FOR CAUTION:** The classification of menstrual irregularity  
61 and PCOS was based on self-report by questionnaire, which may have led to misclassification  
62 of these outcomes. However, despite the limitations of the study, the prevalence of menstrual  
63 irregularity and PCOS in the two cohorts was consistent with the literature. While the study  
64 samples at baseline were population-based, loss to follow-up means the generalizability of  
65 the findings is uncertain.

66 **WIDER IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS:** Greater childhood adiposity indicates a  
67 higher risk of menstrual irregularity and PCOS in adulthood. Whether this is causal or an

68 early indicator of underlying hormonal or metabolic disorders needs clarification. The  
69 stronger associations of adiposity with PCOS in white than black participants suggest that  
70 there are racial differences in childhood adiposity predisposing to the development of PCOS  
71 and other environmental or genetic factors are also important.

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76 competing interests existed.

77 **Key words:** BMI, waist/height ratio, childhood, menstrual irregularity, polycystic ovary  
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## 88 **Introduction**

89 Menstrual irregularity and polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) have been associated with  
90 higher risk of lower fecundity and cardiovascular diseases (Solomon, et al., 2002; West, et  
91 al., 2014) as well as some cancers (Harris, et al., 2018; Harris, et al., 2017). PCOS is  
92 recognized as the most common heterogeneous endocrine disorder, affecting 8-13% of  
93 women of reproductive age (March, et al., 2010). Irregular menstrual cycles are part of the  
94 three diagnostic criteria (National Institutes of Health, Rotterdam and Androgen Excess  
95 Society diagnostic criteria) for PCOS in addition to hyperandrogenism and polycystic ovarian  
96 morphology (Teede, et al., 2018).

97 General and abdominal obesity are associated with a greater risk of menstrual irregularity in  
98 adult women (Douchi, et al., 2002; Hahn, et al., 2013; Jacobsen, et al., 2012; Wei, et al.,  
99 2009). Our previous cross-sectional study suggested that obese women, defined by either  
100 BMI or waist circumference, were twice as likely to have irregular menstruation, compared  
101 with normal weight women (Wei, et al., 2009). However, the association between adult  
102 obesity and PCOS is inconclusive. Although obesity, particularly abdominal obesity, is a  
103 common trait in women with PCOS, it is not part of the diagnostic criteria. The prevalence of  
104 obesity varies among different populations and races but the prevalence of PCOS is relatively  
105 uniform (Legro, 2012). This implies that obesity might not cause PCOS or there could be  
106 geographic/ethnic differences affecting the relationship between obesity and PCOS.

107 Only two previous population-based longitudinal studies (Laitinen, et al., 2003; Lake, et al.,  
108 1997) have investigated the associations between childhood obesity, adult menstrual  
109 irregularity and PCOS, in which childhood BMI was the only indicator of obesity. The 1958  
110 British birth cohort study of 5,770 girls reported that overweight and obesity at 7 years of age  
111 increased the risk of menstrual irregularity before age 33 years (Lake, et al., 1997). The

112 Northern Finland 1966 birth cohort of 2,007 girls suggested that overweight and obesity at  
113 age 14 years were associated with self-reported PCOS at age 31 years(Laitinen, et al., 2003).  
114 Two further papers based on the same Northern Finland cohort reported associations of  
115 weight gain (Ollila, et al., 2016) and age at adiposity rebound with PCOS (Koivuaho, et al.,  
116 2019). Another study based on clinical study samples suggested that change in z-score from  
117 weight at birth to weight in adolescence may be greater in girls with PCOS than in healthy  
118 controls (de Zegher, et al., 2017).

119 In this study we used two cohorts with different racial characteristics who were followed  
120 through childhood to adulthood. We aimed first to investigate the associations of obesity  
121 (including abdominal obesity) in childhood with menstrual irregularity and PCOS in  
122 adulthood and, second to determine whether these associations differed by country (Australia  
123 and USA) and race (white and black).

124

## 125 **Materials and Methods**

126 *The Childhood Determinants of Adult Health Study: a cohort from Australia*

### 127 **Participants**

128 The Childhood Determinants of Adult Health Study (CDAH) study is a follow-up of  
129 participants in the 1985 Australian Schools Health and Fitness Survey (ASHFS), a nationally  
130 representative sample of 8,498 school children (4,191 girls) aged 7-15 years (Gall, et al.,  
131 2009) (Fig. 1). During 2004-06, the first follow-up (CDAH-1) was conducted when  
132 participants were 26-36 years and 1,598 female participants responded to questions on their  
133 menstrual cycle characteristics and PCOS. Among them 652 participants attended a study  
134 clinic and had plasma hormone measurements including total testosterone concentrations and  
135 sex hormone-binding globulin (SHBG) (Wei, et al., 2009). The second follow-up (CDAH-2)

136 was conducted during 2009-11 when participants were aged 31-41 years and 1,123  
137 participants completed the same questions about menstrual cycles and PCOS. The current  
138 study included 1,516 women who completed questions on menstrual cycles and/or PCOS in  
139 CDAH-1 and/or CDAH-2.

140 The study was approved by the Southern Tasmania Health and Medical Human Research  
141 Ethics Committee. Written informed consent was obtained during childhood from parents and  
142 at each follow-up from participants.

### 143 Childhood anthropometric measurements

144 BMI, calculated as weight (kg)/height (m)<sup>2</sup>, was derived from measured weight and height.  
145 BMI was classified as normal, overweight or obese according to the international age-sex-  
146 specific cut-points (Cole, et al., 2000). BMI-z score was calculated based on age-sex-specific  
147 World Health Organization Child Growth standards (2006). Waist circumference was taken  
148 at the level of the umbilicus to the nearest 0.1 cm. Waist/height ratio (WHtR), calculated as  
149 waist circumference divided by height (cm), was the indicator of abdominal obesity when  
150  $WHtR \geq 0.5$  (Brambilla, et al., 2013).

### 151 Adult anthropometric measurements

152 Participants who attended CDAH-1 clinics (n=2,329) had weight, height, and waist  
153 circumference measured. Participants who did not visit clinics (n=1,556) self-reported their  
154 weight and height, and a correction factor was applied to adjust for error, as described  
155 previously (Venn, et al., 2007). BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>) was calculated from height and weight. Weight  
156 and height were self-reported at CDAH-2 and adjusted for error as described above. Adult  
157 BMI was categorized as normal ( $BMI < 25$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>), overweight ( $25.0 \leq BMI \leq 29.9$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>) or  
158 obese ( $BMI \geq 30$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>) (2000).

## 159 Adult menstrual irregularity and PCOS

160 We defined menstrual cycle length as the time from the first day of one period to the first day  
161 of the next and participants were questioned on the length of their usual menstrual cycle.

162 Menstrual irregularity was defined as menstrual cycles  $\geq 35$  days or  $< 25$  days or reported as  
163 extremely irregular in CDAH-1 and/or CDAH-2. Women who were currently pregnant  
164 ( $n=31$ ), using hormonal contraceptives ( $n=411$ ) or had a hysterectomy ( $n=1$ ) were excluded.

165 Women were defined as having PCOS if they self-reported in CDAH-1 and/or CDAH-2 that  
166 they had ever been told by a doctor or they reported two symptoms of PCOS. The symptoms  
167 were menstrual cycle  $\geq 35$  days or totally variable, and hirsutism. The validity of identifying  
168 women with PCOS by way of similar questions has been reported previously as moderately  
169 high (Taponen, et al., 2004). The presence of hirsutism was defined as ever having seen a  
170 doctor because of concern about the amount of hair on their face.

## 171 Covariates

172 Age at menarche was self-reported in adulthood. Smoking history in childhood and adulthood  
173 were coded as ever or never smoked. Ever smoked in childhood was defined as having  $\geq 10$   
174 cigarettes in their life. Former and current smokers in adulthood were defined as ever  
175 smoked. Highest parental education and own-education were classified as high school only,  
176 vocational training and any university education. Childhood alcohol consumption was  
177 classified as none (never consume alcohol), light (consume alcohol less than once/week),  
178 moderate (consume alcohol 1-2 days/week), heavy (consume alcohol 3-4 days/week) and  
179 very heavy (consume alcohol  $\geq 5$  days/week). Alcohol consumption in adulthood was  
180 classified according to daily alcohol intake: none (0 alcoholic drinks/day), light (0-1 alcoholic  
181 drinks/day), moderate (1-2 alcoholic drinks/day), heavy ( $> 2-3$  alcoholic drinks/day) and very



182 heavy intake (>3 alcoholic drinks/day) based on Australian guidelines (Australian  
183 Government, 2009).

#### 184 *The Bogalusa Heart Study: a cohort from the USA*

##### 185 Participants

186 The Bogalusa Heart Study (BHS) is a biracial (65% white and 35% black) prospective cohort  
187 study of cardiovascular risk factors among children and young adults from Bogalusa, LA,  
188 USA (Brook, 1981). Initial study participants aged 3-18 years were enrolled from schools in  
189 1973 and additional participants were recruited over time. Data collection occurred  
190 approximately every 2 years for children and 5 years for adults. These cross-sectional studies  
191 of children or adults were combined to create the overall BHS population.

192 The Bogalusa Babies sub-study (BBS) began in May 2013 to examine the role of  
193 cardiovascular risk factors in childhood on reproductive outcomes. Women with at least one  
194 BHS visit (n=5,914) were eligible to participate. We included 1,247 female participants who  
195 were aged 7-15 years during childhood visits (to align with the CDAH study), who  
196 participated in BBS when they were aged 26-57 years, and had height and weight reported  
197 between ages 26 and 40 years to align with their report of their menstrual cycle  
198 characteristics prior to age 40 years (Fig. 2).

199 For child participants, parental permission and consent of the child were obtained and written  
200 informed consent was obtained from adult participants. All study procedures were approved  
201 by the Institutional Review Board of Tulane University.

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## 204 Childhood anthropometric measurements

205 All BHS surveys followed an identical protocol for anthropometric measurements. In the  
206 subsample of BHS used in the current study, a total of 298 participants had childhood waist  
207 and hip circumference measured. Height, weight and waist circumference were measured  
208 twice to within 0.1cm or 0.1kg and mean values obtained. BMI, BMI z-score, WHtR, obesity  
209 and abdominal obesity were calculated or classified using the same criteria as described in the  
210 CDAH study.

## 211 Adult anthropometric measurements

212 Adult height and weight were recorded in the BHS (Paley, et al., 2004). Where necessary,  
213 height and weight before age 40 years were extracted from records of the BHS (Berkey, et  
214 al., 1993). BMI, overweight and obesity were calculated or classified using the same criteria  
215 as described in the CDAH study.

## 216 Adult menstrual irregularity and PCOS

217 Data on menstrual cycle characteristics were collected by questioning participants on the  
218 length of the average menstrual cycle between age 16 and 40 years (excluding any time spent  
219 pregnant, receiving birth control pills or injections, after menopause, or after having both  
220 ovaries or the uterus surgically removed). Participants reporting an average menstrual cycle  
221 of  $\geq 35$  days,  $< 25$  days, or totally variable were considered to have menstrual irregularity.

222 The classification of PCOS was based on the presence of both menstrual cycle  $\geq 35$  days or  
223 totally variable and hirsutism, or self-reported ever having been told by a doctor that she had  
224 PCOS. Hirsutism was determined by a series questions asking about the tendency to grow  
225 dark, coarse hair on eight body sites including upper lip, chin, breast, chest between the

226 breasts, back, belly, upper arms and upper thighs. Those who indicated three or more sites  
227 were considered as having clinical hirsutism.

## 228 Covariates

229 Race (white/black) was recorded at the initial BHS visit. As previously described (Wattigney,  
230 et al., 1999), information on age at menarche was obtained by a registered nurse. Smoking  
231 history in childhood and adulthood were coded as ever (currently or formerly at any visit) and  
232 never smoked. Highest parental and own-education were classified as high school only,  
233 vocational training, and college or more (any university). Childhood and adulthood alcohol  
234 consumption were classified as none (tried or never drink), light (drink less than once/week),  
235 moderate (drink once or twice/week), heavy (drink 3-4 times/week) and very heavy drinker  
236 (drink daily or almost every day).

## 237 Statistical analyses

238 Means with SDs and numbers with proportions were used to describe participants'  
239 sociodemographic characteristics, menstrual irregularity and PCOS in each cohort from  
240 baseline to follow-up. Taking into account the multiple adult visits conducted in CDAH and  
241 multiple childhood visits in BBS, multi-level generalized linear mixed effects models with  
242 Poisson regression were employed to estimate the relative risks (RRs) and 95% CIs.

243 In BBS, approximately 50% of participants had missing data on age at menarche and more  
244 than 20% of participants had missing data on highest parental education. Multiple imputation  
245 by chained equations was used to impute the missing data (Azur, et al., 2011).

246 Covariates remaining in the final models were variables which were causally related to the  
247 outcome, imbalanced between the exposure groups and resulted in more than 10% change in

248 the coefficient of the principal study factor when added to the model. In analyses of the BBS,  
249 the models were additionally adjusted for race as appropriate.

250 Interactions between race and childhood adiposity on menstrual irregularity and PCOS in  
251 BBS were investigated in the regression model. There was no interaction between race and  
252 obesity on menstrual irregularity ( $P=0.362$ ), however, a statistically significant race  
253 interaction was present for PCOS ( $P=0.042$ ). Therefore, PCOS analyses in BBS were further  
254 stratified by race.

255 The following sensitivity analyses were conducted. First, we repeated the analysis by using  
256 the United States Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) growth reference to  
257 calculate BMI z-score and to classify childhood weight status (Harris, et al., 2018). Second,  
258 the analysis was repeated after excluding persons who may have been of black (n=8) or other  
259 non-white race (n=35) in CDAH (race was inferred from the childhood questionnaire  
260 including the information on father's and mother's country of birth and language spoken at  
261 home) to compare with the results in BBS white participants. Third, associations were  
262 examined with the change between birthweight z-score and BMI z-score in childhood in a  
263 subsample of BBS (n=788) with the relevant information on birthweight and gestational age  
264 available from birth certificates (Chen, et al., 2012). Fourth, as hyperandrogenism is also a  
265 key diagnostic feature for PCOS, the association of childhood adiposity with biochemical  
266 hyperandrogenism was analysed in a subsample of CDAH (n=652) who attended CDAH-1  
267 clinics and were not using hormonal contraceptives. Biochemical hyperandrogenism was  
268 assessed by calculated free testosterone levels (cFT) (Vermeulen, et al., 1999). The  
269 association of childhood adiposity with hirsutism was also analysed in CDAH and BBS.  
270 Fifth, we restricted our sample in BBS to women who were aged under 40 years at follow-up  
271 to ensure reporting of current menstrual characteristics and excluding retrospective reports  
272 from women aged 41-57 years. Last, a subgroup of underweight children was classified to

273 investigate the associations of underweight in childhood with menstrual irregularity and  
274 PCOS in adulthood.

275 All analyses were performed using STATA software, version 15.0 (Stata Corp., College  
276 Station, TX, USA); a p-value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

## 277 **Results**

### 278 *Participant characteristics*

279 Our sample included 1,516 participants from the CDAH study and 1,247 (white: 730; black:  
280 517) participants from the BBS. Anthropometric and sociodemographic characteristics of  
281 participants in the two cohorts are shown in Table I. On average, BBS participants had a  
282 higher childhood BMI z-score and WHtR than CDAH participants. The prevalence of  
283 childhood obesity and abdominal obesity was 1.1% and 5.3% in CDAH and 7.5% (white:  
284 5.2%; black: 10.8%) and 22.5% (white: 20.2%; black: 23.8%) in BBS. At follow-up, the  
285 mean age in CDAH-1 was 31.5 years, and 36.4 years at CDAH-2. In BBS, the mean age was  
286 44.1 years. The prevalence of menstrual irregularity was 16.7% in CDAH and 24.5% in BBS  
287 (white: 25.4%; black: 23.2%). The prevalence of PCOS was 7.4% in CDAH (the average of  
288 CDAH-1 and CDAH-2) and 8.0% (white: 10.7%; black: 4.3%) in BBS. Identification of  
289 PCOS by menstrual characteristics and hirsutism alone classified seven more participants  
290 with PCOS in CDAH and 16 more participants in BBS.

### 291 *Childhood adiposity and menstrual irregularity*

292 Table II shows the associations of childhood adiposity with menstrual irregularity in CDAH  
293 and in the overall BBS. In CDAH (after adjusting for childhood age, age at menarche, highest  
294 parental and their own education), compared with normal weight girls, the risk of reporting  
295 menstrual irregularity was almost three-fold in those who were obese in childhood. Similarly,

296 in the BBS, when further adjusted for race, childhood obesity was associated with nearly  
297 twice the risk of having menstrual irregularity.

### 298 *Childhood adiposity and self-reported PCOS*

299 In CDAH, childhood obesity defined by BMI and childhood abdominal obesity defined by  
300 WHtR were significantly associated with an increased risk of self-reported PCOS (Table III).  
301 A 0.01 unit increase in childhood WHtR was associated with a 5% increased likelihood of  
302 self-reported PCOS. In the BBS sample overall, results were consistent with CDAH:  
303 childhood obesity was associated with a higher risk of self-reported PCOS and every 0.01  
304 unit increase in WHtR was associated with 8% greater likelihood of PCOS (Table III).

### 305 *Racial differences in the associations of self-reported PCOS in BBS*

306 Significant racial differences were observed in the associations of childhood adiposity with  
307 self-reported PCOS, but not with menstrual irregularity, in BBS white and black participants  
308 (Table IV). Childhood obesity and a 0.01 unit increase in WHtR were both associated with an  
309 increased risk of PCOS in BBS white participants, but no significant associations of  
310 childhood obesity or WHtR with PCOS were found in BBS black participants.

### 311 *Influence of weight status from childhood into adulthood*

312 The relative risk of menstrual irregularity by change of weight status from childhood to  
313 adulthood is displayed in Table V. Compared with participants who had persistently normal  
314 BMI in childhood and adulthood, those who became overweight or obese in adulthood  
315 reported a higher risk of menstrual irregularity in BBS. Participants who were persistently  
316 overweight/obese since childhood had significantly higher risks of menstrual irregularity in  
317 both CDAH and BBS.

318 No significant association of any weight status category from childhood to adulthood with  
319 PCOS was found in BBS black participants (Table VI). In white participants, those who were  
320 overweight or obese in childhood only, or persistently overweight or obese from childhood to  
321 adulthood, had a significantly increased risk of PCOS (Table VI).

### 322 *Sensitivity analyses*

323 Similar estimates were found in sensitivity analyses in which the United States CDC  
324 standards were used to calculate childhood BMI z-score and classify childhood obesity  
325 according to BMI (Supplementary Table SI, Table SII and Table SIII). When women of non-  
326 white races (n=43) were excluded in CDAH, the associations between increased childhood  
327 BMI and menstrual irregularity remained statistically significant. The associations between  
328 increased childhood BMI, WHtR and PCOS also remained statistically significant with only  
329 small changes in the mean coefficients (-2.5%-11.20%). In a subsample of participants who  
330 had birthweight and gestational age in BBS (n=788), we found the z-score increment between  
331 weight at birth and BMI in childhood was associated with increased risk of menstrual  
332 irregularity and PCOS in white participants but no statistically significant association was  
333 found in black participants (Supplementary Table SIV).

334 In a subsample of participants who attended CDAH-1 clinics (n=652), childhood BMI z-  
335 score ( $\beta= 2.82$  pmol/l, 95% CI: 1.67-3.98) and childhood WHtR ( $\beta= 0.59$  pmol/l, 95% CI:  
336 0.33-0.86) were positively associated with cFT in adulthood. In CDAH, childhood BMI z-  
337 score (RR=1.50, 95% CI: 1.30-2.00) and WHtR (RR=1.07, 95% CI: 1.01-1.12) were  
338 positively associated with hirsutism at follow-up; similar associations of childhood BMI z-  
339 score (RR=1.61 95% CI: 1.25-2.09) and WHtR (RR=1.13, 95% CI: 1.05-1.21) with hirsutism  
340 were found in BBS white but not black participants.

341 When restricting the sample to women who were aged under 40 years in the analysis of  
342 menstrual irregularity in BBS (n=431) (Supplementary Table SV), the risks of menstrual  
343 irregularity remained elevated for participants with high childhood adiposity, although less  
344 so, and achieved borderline significance for childhood obesity (RR=1.50, 95% CI 0.94-2.41,  
345  $P=0.090$ ) and childhood abdominal obesity (RR=1.55, 95% CI 0.99-2.41,  $P=0.055$ ). No  
346 significant associations of childhood underweight in CDAH (n=14) and BBS (n=22) with  
347 menstrual irregularity and PCOS in adulthood were found.

## 348 **Discussion**

349 This study is the first to report the association of childhood abdominal obesity with menstrual  
350 irregularity and PCOS in adulthood, using data from two independent large prospective  
351 cohorts in two countries. Overall, in both cohorts, childhood obesity but not abdominal  
352 obesity was associated with greater risks of menstrual irregularity. A significant racial  
353 difference was observed in the associations of childhood obesity and abdominal obesity with  
354 PCOS, with significant associations found in white participants, but not in black participants.  
355 The risks of menstrual irregularity and PCOS were consistently significantly higher in  
356 participants with persistent overweight/obesity since childhood.

357 The positive association between childhood obesity and adulthood menstrual irregularity is  
358 consistent with prior findings from the 1958 British birth cohort (Lake, et al., 1997). Though  
359 some studies have suggested that the distribution of body fat in adult women may be a risk  
360 factor of menstrual irregularity cross-sectionally (Douchi, et al., 2002; Wei, et al., 2009), no  
361 statistically significant association of childhood abdominal obesity with menstrual  
362 irregularity was found in CDAH and BBS. The mechanisms underlying the associations of  
363 greater childhood BMI with menstrual irregularity in adulthood may include a series of  
364 hormonal factors. Childhood obesity is a risk factor for increased concentrations of



365 testosterone, LH, insulin, and reduced concentrations of SHBG in adulthood (Elizondo-  
366 Montemayor, et al., 2017; Marcovecchio and Chiarelli, 2013). These changes may cause a  
367 disruption of normal ovulation and menstrual irregularity.

368 It is known that PCOS and menstrual irregularity are strongly correlated. We found that the  
369 positive associations of childhood BMI and WHtR with self-reported PCOS in adulthood  
370 were strong in CDAH and BBS white participants. Menstrual irregularity is part of the  
371 diagnostic criteria for PCOS (Teede, et al., 2018), and childhood obesity was correlated with  
372 menstrual irregularity in the current study, therefore, this may explain the observed  
373 associations. Phenotypic features (including menstrual irregularity and hyperandrogenism) of  
374 PCOS are known to be regulated by obesity cross-sectionally, typically involving a  
375 distribution of central fat (de Zegher, et al., 2018; Legro, 2012). Our finding of the positive  
376 associations between childhood BMI, childhood WHtR and cFT in adulthood in a subsample  
377 of participants in CDAH suggested that higher childhood adiposity increased the risk of  
378 hyperandrogenism. Childhood obesity as well as abdominal obesity may act to promote  
379 menstrual irregularity and hyperandrogenism in those at higher risk of PCOS.

380 No significant association of adiposity with PCOS was found in BBS black girls. A previous  
381 cross-sectional study by Christensen, et al. (2013) also reported that the association between  
382 BMI and PCOS was weaker in black girls than white girls. The literature has indicated that  
383 although there are substantial racial differences in the prevalence of obesity, the prevalence of  
384 PCOS is similar in different races (Azziz, et al., 2004; Knochenhauer, et al., 1998; Wolf, et  
385 al., 2018). In our study, BBS black participants had a higher prevalence of childhood obesity  
386 than white participants (10.8% versus 5.2%, respectively), but their prevalence of PCOS was  
387 lower than white participants (4.3% versus 10.7%, respectively). The explanations for this  
388 racial difference are unclear. It is possible that lower socioeconomic status and poorer health  
389 service access and utilisation among black women may result in a lower rate of diagnosis

390 (Merkin, et al., 2016). These factors may thereby dilute the associations observed in black  
391 participants. However, in BBS, a stronger association of childhood adiposity with hirsutism  
392 was still observed among white compared to black participants. While previous studies have  
393 suggested that black women with PCOS have increased risk of metabolic syndrome and  
394 cardiovascular disease compared with white women with PCOS (Chan, et al., 2017; Hillman,  
395 et al., 2014), the associations of adiposity with PCOS between races have not been clearly  
396 defined. We are the first to report in longitudinal studies that there are racial differences in  
397 how childhood adiposity associates with the development of PCOS.

398 The lack of association of childhood adiposity with PCOS in black participants also suggests  
399 that high childhood adiposity is not the only driver of adult PCOS and many other factors  
400 may play a role in PCOS development and progression. Prenatal androgen exposure has been  
401 proposed as a cause of PCOS although the evidence from human studies is inconsistent  
402 (Hickey, et al., 2009). Familial trends in PCOS are reported, but no specific genetic  
403 association has been reported and more research is necessary to define the genetic basis  
404 (Crespo, et al., 2018). Environmental factors, including health-related behaviours or lifestyles  
405 and economic disadvantage, are potentially involved in the aetiology, prevalence, and  
406 modulation of PCOS (Merkin, et al., 2016). It is likely that there are genetic, molecular and  
407 environmental factors that contribute to the racial differences in childhood adiposity-related  
408 PCOS.

409 The risks of menstrual irregularity and PCOS were significantly higher in women with  
410 persistent overweight/obesity since childhood in both CDAH and BBS, consistent with  
411 findings from the Northern Finland 1966 birth cohort study (Laitinen, et al., 2003).  
412 Furthermore, in our study, for white participants in BBS, we found for the first time that  
413 women who were overweight/obese in childhood but not in adulthood also reported a

414 significantly higher risk of PCOS, suggesting independent effects of childhood adiposity that  
415 need to be confirmed in larger studies.

416 There are several limitations in our study. First, menstrual cycle characteristics and PCOS  
417 were self-reported by questionnaire. Previous studies have suggested that women's  
418 retrospective self-report of menstrual length can be prone to error (Small, et al., 2007) and the  
419 agreement between diary records and retrospectively recalled menstrual cycle length was  
420 moderate (Jukic, et al., 2008). Self-reported PCOS likely tends to underestimate prevalence  
421 (Varanasi, et al., 2018; Wang, et al., 2018). Also, if the accuracy of self-reported menstrual  
422 cycle length and PCOS differed by obesity status, then our effect estimates might have been  
423 biased. However, previous studies have shown no evidence of this (Jukic, et al., 2008;  
424 Laitinen, et al., 2003; Small, et al., 2007).

425 A second potential limitation of this study was the exclusion of women using hormonal  
426 contraception (28.4%) in the analysis of menstrual irregularity in CDAH. Since hormonal  
427 contraception is commonly prescribed for menstrual irregularity (Bulletins—Gynecology,  
428 2013), we may have under-estimated the prevalence of menstrual irregularity. Third, we have  
429 limited information on the age at which PCOS was diagnosed in the two cohorts. Only in the  
430 second follow-up in CDAH were participants asked to report the age when their PCOS was  
431 diagnosed (ages ranged from 14-36 years with only four participants reporting the diagnosis  
432 of PCOS before age 18 years). It has been suggested that adolescents with characteristics of  
433 PCOS should be reassessed at or before full reproductive maturity, at 8 years post menarche  
434 (Teede, et al., 2018) to confirm a diagnosis. In this study, participants reporting a diagnosis of  
435 PCOS during adolescence may have been misclassified. Fourth, the diagnostic criteria for  
436 PCOS have recently changed (Teede, et al., 2018) and there may have been differences in  
437 how PCOS was diagnosed in Australia compared to the USA. Despite all of these limitations,

438 we showed that the prevalence of menstrual irregularity and PCOS in the two cohorts was  
439 consistent with the literature (March, et al., 2010; Weller and Weller, 1998).

440 Finally, some characteristics of those continuing in the study differed from those lost to  
441 follow-up, and this might limit the generalizability of the findings. In CDAH, non-  
442 participants had higher BMI and WHtR values, on average, in childhood than the  
443 participants, indicating the current sample may have comprised healthier participants.  
444 However, if non-participants were also more likely to have menstrual irregularity and PCOS  
445 in adulthood than participants, the effect of this bias would be to underestimate the magnitude  
446 of the associations observed. Participants in the BBS were more likely to be black (41%  
447 versus 34%) compared with the rest of the study cohort, but childhood BMI was similar  
448 among participants and non-participants (Wang, et al., 2018).

449 Strengths of our study include that this is the first prospective study to investigate the long-  
450 term associations between childhood abdominal obesity measures and menstrual irregularity  
451 and PCOS. Second, we used two independent cohorts from two countries and reported  
452 consistent findings. Third, we were able to consider associations by race in BBS.

453 In conclusion, greater childhood BMI was associated with an increased risk of menstrual  
454 irregularity in adulthood in both CDAH and BBS. Greater childhood BMI and WHtR were  
455 associated with an increased risk of PCOS in adulthood in CDAH, and in BBS white  
456 participants. These risks were significantly higher in women with persistent  
457 overweight/obesity since childhood. No significant association of adiposity with PCOS was  
458 found in BBS black participants, suggesting there are racial differences in childhood  
459 adiposity associating with the development of PCOS, and other environmental or genetic  
460 factors are important. Whether high childhood adiposity is causal or an early independent

461 indicator of underlying hormonal or metabolic disorders related to PCOS needs further  
462 clarification.

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## 482 **Authors' roles**

483 Y.H. performed the statistical analysis and drafted the manuscript. J.T. provided analytical  
484 and interpretive advice and helped draft the manuscript. L.B. assisted with the data analysis  
485 and provided interpretive advice. W.H.O. provided interpretive advice and helped draft the  
486 manuscript. T.D. was involved in conceptualization of the study and provided interpretive  
487 advice. L.A.B. helped with acquisition of data and provided interpretive advice. M.H.  
488 provided interpretive advice and provided critical revision of the manuscript. E.W.H helped  
489 with acquisition of data, provided interpretive advice and critical revision of the manuscript.  
490 A.J.V. was involved in the conceptualization of the study, acquisition of data, and helped  
491 draft the manuscript. All authors have reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

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## 497 **Conflict of interest**

498 There is no conflict of interest.

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634 **Figure legends**

635 **Figure 1** Flow chart of the study population for the Childhood Determinants of Adult Health

636 Study in Australia, 1985–2011.

637 CDAH: Childhood Determinants of Adult Health

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639 **Figure 2** Flow chart of the study population for the Bogalusa Heart Study in the USA, 1973–

640 2017.

641 PCOS: polycystic ovary syndrome