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**Soy intake and vasomotor menopausal symptoms among midlife women: a pooled
analysis of five studies from the InterLACE consortium**

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Short running head: Soy intake and vasomotor menopausal symptoms

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Background/Objectives:** Phytoestrogen rich-foods such as soy may be associated with less
3 frequent/severe vasomotor menopausal symptoms (VMS), although evidence is limited. We
4 thus investigated the associations between the consumption of soy products and soy milk and
5 the frequency/severity of VMS.

6 **Subjects/Methods:** We pooled data from 19,351 middle-aged women from five
7 observational studies in Australia, UK, USA, and Japan that contribute to the International
8 Collaboration for a Life course Approach to reproductive health and Chronic disease Events
9 (InterLACE). Information on soy consumption, VMS and covariates were collected by self-
10 report. We included 11,006 women who had complete data on soy consumption, VMS and
11 covariates at baseline for the cross-sectional analysis. For the prospective analysis, 4,522
12 women who were free of VMS at baseline and had complete data on VMS at follow-up were
13 considered. Multinomial logistic regression and binary logistic regression models were used.

14 **Results:** No statistically significant evidence of an association was found between soy
15 products (relative risk ratio (RRR): 0.92, 95% CI: 0.76–1.11) or soy milk (RRR: 1.24, 95%
16 CI: 0.93–1.65) and the likelihood of reporting frequent or severe VMS cross-sectionally.
17 Prospective results indicated that frequent consumption of soy products (odds ratio (OR):
18 0.63, 95% CI: 0.45–0.89) but not soy milk (OR: 1.11, 95% CI: 0.85–1.45) was associated
19 with lower likelihood of reporting subsequent VMS, after adjustment for socio-demographic
20 and reproductive factors.

21 **Conclusions:** These are the first ever findings from pooled observational data of association
22 between consumption of soy products and VMS.

23 INTRODUCTION

24 Menopause, a natural event marking the end of the reproductive life of women, is often
25 accompanied by menopausal symptoms. Vasomotor menopausal symptoms (VMS), including
26 hot flushes and night sweats, are the most common symptoms which arise as a consequence
27 of a decline in endogenous oestrogen levels, in particular during the perimenopausal and
28 early postmenopausal phases [1, 2]. The frequency and severity of VMS usually decrease
29 over time, but this varies by individual with symptoms subsiding after a year for some or
30 persisting for over 30 years in others [3]. The frequency/severity of VMS have been linked to
31 various chronic diseases including cardiovascular disease, osteoporosis, and cognitive decline
32 [4, 5].

33 Phytoestrogen rich-foods such as soy have been associated with less frequent and less severe
34 menopausal symptoms, although evidence is limited [6, 7]. Epidemiological studies which
35 investigated the association between soy intake and the frequency/severity of VMS also
36 demonstrated conflicting results [8, 9]. Moreover, according to a review of 43 randomised
37 controlled trials (RCTs) [1], the positive effect of phytoestrogen supplements on the
38 frequency/severity of hot flushes and night sweats in peri- or post-menopausal women is still
39 inconclusive given the small sample size and potential high risk of bias of the included trials.
40 However, the same review suggested that the effect of genistein (a soy derived isoflavone)
41 was promising [1].

42 While dietary intake of phytoestrogens is usually in the form of soy bean, soy bean curd, tofu,
43 tempeh, soy milk and other soy products, most studies have investigated the effects of soy
44 supplements and extracts [10-12]. This study thus sought to elucidate the cross-sectional and
45 prospective associations between soy intake and VMS among peri and post-menopausal
46 women across five studies contributing to the International Collaboration for a Life course
47 Approach to reproductive health and Chronic disease Events (InterLACE) consortium.

48

49 **SUBJECTS AND METHODS**

50 **Ethical approval**

51 Written consent was obtained from all participants. All the cohort studies included in the
52 InterLACE consortium have been previously granted ethical approval by the respective
53 ethical committees [13].

54 **Study participants**

55 The InterLACE consortium includes individual data from ten countries. It involves around
56 230,000 participants from 20 observational studies with data on women's health (12 of which
57 provide longitudinal data). Further detailed information on InterLACE has been published
58 elsewhere [13, 14]. For the current study, five studies that had information on soy intake (the
59 exposure) and hot flushes and/or night sweats (the outcome) were included: Australian
60 Longitudinal Study on Women's Health (ALSWH) [15], Healthy Ageing of Women Study
61 (HOW) – Australia, Whitehall II study (WHITEHALL) – UK [16], Seattle Midlife Women's
62 Health Study (SMWHS) [17] and Japanese Midlife Women's Health Study (JMWHS) [18]
63 (Supplementary Table 1). For the cross-sectional analysis, data from 11,006 women who
64 reported VMS (either frequency or severity), consumption frequency of soy products and soy
65 milk and had complete information on confounders (listed below) were included in the
66 analysis. The prospective analysis included data from three studies (ALSWH, HOW and
67 WHITEHALL) (n=10,082). Excluding 5,560 women who reported VMS at baseline and
68 those with missing data on VMS, menopausal status, and use of hormone therapy at follow-
69 up, 4,522 women were considered for the prospective analysis (Supplementary Figure 1).

70

71 **Main outcome and exposure variables**

72 VMS was defined as the presence of hot flushes and/ or night sweats. Response options for
73 the frequency of hot flushes and night sweats (over the last 12 months) were ‘never, rarely,
74 sometimes, and often’ in ALSWH. For the other four studies, the severity of VMS over a
75 shorter period was recorded; HOW, WHITEHALL and JMWHS considered the current
76 severity of VMS, while SMWHS considered the severity of VMS in the last 1-3 months. For
77 example, in HOW and JMWHS the response options for the extent of symptoms were ‘not at
78 all, a little, quite a bit, and extremely’ and for WHITEHALL the response options were ‘not
79 at all, a little, somewhat, and a lot’. The degree of severity was harmonised as ‘never, mild,
80 moderate and severe’ over a shorter period of time. Since the frequency of VMS was assessed
81 in ALSWH and severity in the remaining four studies, results were presented separately.
82 VMS were further coded dichotomously as ‘*absent*’ (never and rarely if reporting frequency;
83 never and mild if reporting severity) and ‘*present*’ (sometimes and often if reporting
84 frequency; moderate and severe if reporting severity) for the study-specific and prospective
85 analysis.

86 Soy products such as tofu, soy beans, tempeh, and soy milk were commonly reported in the
87 five studies. The soy products were combined based on their phytoestrogen contents. Thus,
88 tofu, soy beans, tempeh, and soy flour having a high phytoestrogen content were grouped
89 under the soy products category, while soy milk was considered separately [19, 20].

90 In ALSWH, there were ten consumption frequency options: ‘never, less than once per month,
91 1-3 times per month, 1 time per week, 2 times per week, 3-4 times per week, 5-6 times per
92 week, 1 time per day, 2 times per day, 3 or more times per day’. In the WHITEHALL study,
93 nine consumption frequency options were provided; five in SMWHS and four response
94 categories in HOW and JMWHS. Therefore, for this study, studies having more than four
95 categories were collapsed into four frequency categories: ‘never/rarely’, ‘monthly’, ‘weekly’,
96 and ‘daily’. They were further coded dichotomously as ‘less frequent’ (never/rarely and

97 monthly) and ‘frequent’ (weekly and daily) given the small number of observations for
98 ‘weekly’ and ‘daily’ intake for the prospective analysis.

99

100 **Covariates**

101 Categorical variables in the InterLACE study were collapsed into the simplest categories
102 possible so as to include data from as many studies as possible [13]. For example, education
103 level was collated into three categories as ≤ 10 years, 11-12 years, and >12 years. Smoking
104 status was grouped as never smokers, past smokers, and current smokers. Based on
105 gynaecological surgery and menstrual bleeding patterns, menopausal status was collated into
106 five categories to include 1) hysterectomy/oophorectomy, 2) unknown due to hormone use
107 (menopausal hormone therapy or oral contraceptive hormones before reaching menopause),
108 3) premenopause (regular menstruation in the last 3 and 12 months), 4) perimenopause
109 (menses in the past 3 months and changes/irregularity in menstrual patterns in the past 12
110 months; or no menses in the previous 3 months but menses in the preceding 11 months), and
111 5) natural postmenopause (amenorrhea for at least 12 months). Current use of menopausal
112 hormone therapy (e.g. oestrogen) was categorised as yes and no.

113

114 **Statistical analysis**

115 As the result of different assessments (frequency or severity) and different recall periods (in
116 the past 12 months or in a more recent period) for VMS, studies were grouped as: 1)
117 frequency of VMS in the past 12 months (ALSWH); 2) severity of VMS over a shorter time
118 period (HOW, WHITEHALL, SMWHS, and JMWHS). The associations between soy
119 consumption and VMS were first examined separately for the two different designs, followed
120 by the overall estimates.

121 Multinomial logistic regression models with four categories of outcome for VMS (never,
122 rarely/mild, sometimes/moderate, and often/severe) were used to investigate the cross-
123 sectional associations between frequency of consumption of soy products and soy milk with
124 frequency/severity of VMS at baseline. The VMS category ‘never’ was used as the reference
125 group for the outcome, and the soy consumption category ‘never’ was used as the reference
126 group for the exposure. Relative risk ratios (RRR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) were
127 estimated. According to the minimally sufficient set of adjustments, smoking status,
128 education level, menopausal status, and race/ethnicity were identified as confounders using a
129 directed acyclic graph (Supplementary Figure 2) and were adjusted for in the regression
130 models. However, race/ethnicity was not included in the model as participants from ALSWH
131 (96.5%), HOW (95.1%), WHITEHALL (88.1%) and SMWHS (88.1%) were mainly
132 Caucasians, and in JMWHS all the participants were Japanese. Concurrent menopausal
133 hormone therapy use was included in the model given its potential effect on the
134 frequency/severity of VMS [21]. The models were thus adjusted for menopausal status and
135 concurrent menopausal hormone therapy use (model 1) and additionally adjusted for other
136 potential covariates including education level and smoking status (model 2). ‘Study’ was
137 included as a fixed effect to account for differences in levels of VMS between studies and as
138 a stratification variable to account for correlation of individuals within studies.

139 Due to small numbers of participants in the four categories of exposure and outcome in
140 individual studies, dichotomised soy consumption (frequent and less frequent) and
141 dichotomised VMS (presence and absence) were used for the study-specific and prospective
142 analysis. To examine between-study heterogeneity in the effect size estimates, study-specific
143 logistic regression and random-effects meta-analysis were used with the estimates adjusted
144 for all the covariates in model 2.

145 For the prospective analysis based on three studies (ALSWH, HOW and WHITEHALL),
146 logistic regression models with the binary outcome for VMS (presence and absence) were
147 fitted, adjusted for all the covariates in model 2. In addition, a sensitivity analysis was
148 conducted to investigate the association between soy consumption and subsequent risk of
149 VMS at follow-up with all the women included (n=10,082), but adjusting for their baseline
150 VMS, given that a large proportion of women were excluded in the prospective analysis due
151 to the presence of VMS at baseline. Analyses were performed using STATA 14 (StataCorp
152 LP, College Station, Texas). All statistical tests were two sided.

153

154 **RESULTS**

155 11,006 women reported their consumption frequency of soy and VMS, and also had complete
156 data on the covariates. The median age of the women at baseline was 52 years (interquartile
157 range: 51-54) (Supplementary Table 1). Table 1 shows the baseline characteristics of the
158 participants in each study. The majority of the participants were Caucasians-
159 Australians/New-Zealanders (57.5%), had 10 years or less of education (46.3%), and never
160 smoked (60.9%). Nearly 30% of the women were naturally postmenopausal, and 26.5% were
161 currently using menopausal hormone therapy. Across HOW, WHITEHALL, SMWHS, and
162 JMWHS which measured the severity of VMS, WHITEHALL had the highest percentage of
163 women who reported 'severe' VMS (11.1%), while JMWHS (Japanese) had the lowest
164 percentage (4.4%). In the ALSWH study, 24.6% reported 'often' for the frequency of VMS.
165 In this predominantly Caucasian population, 80-90% of the women reported that they never
166 consumed soy products or soy milk. Across the individual studies, JMWHS had the largest
167 percentage of women who reported 'daily' and 'weekly' soy product consumption (49.3%
168 and 47.7% respectively) (Table 1). Comparing baseline characteristics of women included in
169 the prospective analysis and those excluded due to loss to follow-up, the excluded women

170 were less educated and more likely to be obese and current smokers at baseline. They were
171 more likely to be postmenopausal and less likely to report frequent/severe VMS compared to
172 women with complete follow-up data (Supplementary Table 2).

173 For the cross-sectional analysis, women with ‘weekly’ and ‘daily’ consumption of soy
174 products were less likely to report frequent/severe VMS compared with those with
175 never/rarely consumption (11.7 vs. 20.5% and 6.4 vs. 20.5%, respectively) (Table 2).
176 However, after adjusting for covariates and study differences, no clear evidence of an
177 association was found between soy product consumption and the degree of VMS. Similarly,
178 there was no clear evidence of an association observed for ALSWH or the other four studies.
179 For soy milk consumption, women with a daily consumption were more likely to report
180 frequent/severe VMS compared to women who reported ‘never/rarely’ consumption (RRR:
181 1.56, 95% CI: 1.24–1.96). A similar pattern for ‘daily’ consumption and risk of
182 frequent/severe VMS was observed in ALSWH (RRR: 1.39, 95% CI: 1.10–1.77) and the
183 other four studies (RRR: 3.09, 95% CI: 1.47–6.50).

184 When using dichotomised exposure and outcome variables for the study-specific analysis, the
185 pooled estimate of association between frequent soy product consumption and the presence of
186 VMS was OR: 0.92, 95% CI: 0.76–1.11, with no statistically significant heterogeneity
187 between studies, test for heterogeneity: $P = 0.49$, $I^2 = 0\%$ (Figure 1). For the association
188 between frequent consumption of soy milk and the presence of VMS, the pooled OR estimate
189 was 1.24 (95% CI: 0.93–1.65) with no statistically significant heterogeneity between the
190 studies (test for heterogeneity: $P = 0.24$, $I^2 = 26.6\%$) (Figure 2).

191 For the prospective analysis, the overall estimates suggest that women with frequent soy
192 product consumption were less likely to report the incidence of VMS at follow-up (OR: 0.63,
193 95% CI: 0.45–0.89) (Table 3). A consistent pattern was observed in ALSWH (OR: 0.63,
194 95% CI: 0.44–0.90) and the other four studies (OR: 0.60, 95% CI: 0.18–1.97). There was no

195 clear evidence of an association between frequent consumption of soy milk and incident
196 VMS at follow-up (OR: 1.11, 95% CI: 0.85–1.45). The sensitivity analysis with all the
197 women included demonstrated a similar or weaker association between soy consumption and
198 subsequent VMS, even adjusted by baseline VMS (Table 4).

199

200 **DISCUSSION**

201 This pooled study demonstrated no clear evidence of an association between consumption
202 frequency of soy products and VMS in the cross-sectional analysis. However, in the
203 prospective analysis, women with frequent consumption of soy products were less likely to
204 report subsequent VMS. Furthermore, there was no evidence of an association between
205 consumption of soy milk and frequency/severity of VMS both cross-sectionally (Figure 1, 2)
206 and prospectively (Table 3).

207 Our prospective analysis showed an association between frequent consumption of soy
208 products and decreased odds of VMS at follow-up, though this was attenuated when baseline
209 VMS was taken into account. Similarly, a Japanese community-based study in which women
210 were followed for six years found that soy products intake alleviated hot flushes [9]. Several
211 RCTs have investigated the association between some type of substance containing dietary
212 soy (e.g. soy extract in capsule or tablet form, soy powder or soy protein added to diets) and
213 its effect on hot flushes. While some demonstrated a reduction in the frequency/severity of
214 hot flushes [10, 22-24], others have shown contradictory findings [25, 26]. According to a
215 review study, the dose of genistein, in particular, was associated with a reduction of the
216 symptoms rather than total isoflavone [27]. The oestrogen-like properties of soy food due to
217 the isoflavones content have been linked to the protective effect on VMS. A decrease in the
218 number of ovarian follicles and consequent fall in oestrogen level could be the underlying
219 hormonal aetiology of VMS [28, 29]. However, the effect of phytoestrogens in reducing

220 VMS remains unclear [30]. One of the possible mechanism of action is the structural
221 similarity of isoflavones to that of oestradiol could confer oestrogenic or anti-oestrogenic
222 effects depending on the circulating oestrogen level by binding to oestrogen receptors [31,
223 32]. The relative decline in oestrogen level leads to higher circulating norepinephrine levels
224 and an upregulation of serotonin receptors which mediate hot flushes in menopausal women.
225 By binding to oestrogen receptors, isoflavones help to restore the oestrogen level, and causes
226 subsequent changes in norepinephrine and serotonin levels, thus reducing the propensity of
227 hot flushes [33].

228 Our pooled data did not show a clear association between soy milk consumption and
229 frequency/severity of VMS. The source of dietary isoflavones may also contribute to the
230 observed effect since processing methods tend to alter the phytoestrogen contents of soy
231 products [34]. For instance, the total isoflavone content in soy beans (103mg per 100g),
232 tempeh (18mg per 100g) and tofu (27mg per 100g) is much higher than that in soy milk (3mg
233 per 100g) [20]. The overall low consumption frequency of soy milk among the participants
234 and its low isoflavone content could possibly explain this finding.

235 The main drawback of our study is the variation in assessments used by the different studies.
236 Soy consumption was measured as frequency, with no information on quantities. Moreover,
237 for the consumption of soy milk, the cross-sectional nature of some of the studies and lack of
238 evidence of a significant association from the prospective analysis, mean that we cannot
239 confirm a temporal relationship between soy milk consumption and VMS. There also might
240 be possibility of residual confounding, e.g. by factors not measured in the studies. One
241 weakness of data harmonisation is the collapsing of the variables of interest into the simplest
242 level of detail in order to incorporate information from as many studies as possible, leading to
243 loss of statistical power as well as potential misclassification of the degree of VMS and
244 frequency of soy consumption. For instance, studies like ALSWH and WHITEHALL had ten

245 and nine frequency options respectively for consumption of soy that were collapsed to four
246 categories for this analysis. In addition, the frequency of VMS was reported in ALSWH over
247 a longer period of time (12 months), and the other four studies recorded the severity of VMS
248 over a shorter period that limited our ability to pool data. Despite these limitations the pooled
249 results showed considerable homogeneity as shown in the forest plots and the low values for
250 the statistic I^2 .

251 Furthermore, our study had several strengths that ranged from the inclusion of a large number
252 of women across different geographic regions and cultures that allowed greater
253 generalisability of the results. This is also, to our knowledge, the first pooled study consisting
254 of women's health studies from four different countries examining an association between
255 soy products and soy milk with frequency/severity of VMS. We also included women who
256 had a hysterectomy, oophorectomy, and/or were currently using hormones that could provide
257 a better estimate of the prevalence of VMS. In addition, the individual data available in the
258 InterLACE enabled harmonization of the variables of interest using common definitions,
259 coding and cut points not normally possible with meta-analyses of published results.
260 Harmonisation of the data further reduces the between-study heterogeneity. A consistent
261 approach to confounder adjustment was used for the regression models along with careful
262 selection of the confounders using a DAG, thus reducing the probability of the results being
263 affected by uncontrolled confounders.

264 While menopause is an inevitable phenomenon in a woman's life cycle, the frequency and
265 severity of VMS show marked variations [35]. VMS are reported by around 75% of
266 postmenopausal women globally, with a minority reporting severe symptoms [36, 37].
267 Findings from this study provide some evidence that frequent consumption of soy products
268 (e.g., soy beans, tofu, tempeh) as part of the usual diet may be associated with a reduced risk
269 of subsequent VMS. However, frequent consumption of soy milk did not appear to be

270 associated with subsequent VMS. As justified by potential mechanisms in previous studies,
271 our findings could prompt RCTs testing the effects of dietary soy intake in particular on VMS
272 as opposed to earlier RCTs which have mainly considered the effects of soy extracts and
273 supplements.

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288 **Contribution**

289 The authors' responsibilities were as follows — GDM: conceived the study; YD, HFC and
290 GDM: designed the research and had primary responsibility for the final content; JEC, DCG,
291 ESM, NFW, EJB, TY, and DA: contributed to the data; YD: performed the statistical analysis
292 and wrote the manuscript; HFC, DCG, JEC, AJD and GDM: provided statistical input, helped
293 with interpretation of the results and reviewed the manuscript for important intellectual
294 content; and all authors: read and approved the final manuscript.

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302 **Conflict of interests**

303 Janet E. Cade is the director of a university spin out company, Dietary Assessment Ltd. The
304 other authors had no financial or personal conflicts of interest to declare.

305

306

307 'Supplementary information is available at EJCN's website'

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Figure 1. Forest plot of study-specific effect estimates of the cross-sectional association between consumption frequency of soy products and the presence of vasomotor menopausal symptoms at baseline. Soy product consumption was coded dichotomously as ‘*frequent*’ (weekly and daily) and ‘*less frequent*’ (never/rarely and monthly) and vasomotor symptoms as ‘*present*’ (sometimes and often if reporting frequency; moderate and severe if reporting severity) and ‘*absent*’ (never and rarely if reporting frequency; never and mild if reporting severity) given the small number of observations in each study. Odds ratios (ORs) are presented on a log scale. Effect estimates were adjusted for menopausal status, current use of menopausal hormone therapy, education level, and smoking status. VMS: Vasomotor menopausal symptoms

Figure 2. Forest plot of study-specific effect estimates of the cross-sectional association between consumption frequency of soy milk and the presence of vasomotor menopausal symptoms at baseline. Soy milk consumption was coded dichotomously as '*frequent*' (weekly and daily) and '*less frequent*' (never/rarely and monthly) and vasomotor symptoms as '*present*' (sometimes and often if reporting frequency; moderate and severe if reporting severity) and '*absent*' (never and rarely if reporting frequency; never and mild if reporting severity) given the small number of observations in each study. Odds ratios (ORs) are presented on a log scale. Effect estimates were adjusted for menopausal status, current use of menopausal hormone therapy, education level, and smoking status. VMS: Vasomotor menopausal symptoms