

THE ASSOCIATION BETWEEN EARLY MENARCHE AND PRETERM BIRTH

ASVINI KEETHAKUMAR

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF SCIENCE

GRADUATE PROGRAM IN KINESIOLOGY AND HEALTH SCIENCE

YORK UNIVERSITY

TORONTO, ONTARIO

NOVEMBER 2020

© Asvini Keethakumar, 2020

ABSTRACT

Exploring healthcare outcomes throughout a female's reproductive life is an important area of research that is in need of more investigation. Specifically, there is a limited body of evidence available that explores the association between early reproductive behaviours and future pregnancy outcomes. Yet there is increasing evidence that points towards a relationship between the age at menarche and an increased risk for preterm birth. Therefore, this thesis explored the relationship between early age at menarche and the risk of preterm birth among a cohort of Canadian women. Responses from the Ontario Birth Study, a retrospective pregnancy-based cohort study, was used for the analysis. Summary statistics and a multivariable logistic regression were conducted, adjusting for covariates. Overall, 17% of the sample experienced early menarche. Additionally, 4.2% of all survey participants experienced a preterm birth. In total, 7.0% of women who experienced an early age at menarche went on to deliver preterm. The unadjusted association between early menarche and preterm birth was statistically significant; however, after adjusting for all covariates, the relationship was no longer significant. Significant determinants of a preterm birth included women who had any hypertensive disorders throughout their pregnancy, had fetal complications, or any placental issues prior to delivery. Conversely, those in the highest income group were at a decreased risk of a preterm birth. Recognizing risk factors is an important step to aid healthcare providers mitigate the risks associated with preterm birth. Future investigations are needed to probe deeper into the field and tease out social and environmental intricacies.

DEDICATION

To my vivacious and unwavering grandparents

To my backbone: Amma, Appa, and Akshitha

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Hala Tamim, for her unwavering support and kindness during the entire duration of my Master's degree. I am incredibly grateful for your mentorship, guidance, and motivation; and consider myself extremely lucky to have met you along my academic journey.

A very special acknowledgement to my second reader, Dr. Brad Meisner, for his encouraging words and exceptional feedback throughout the entire thesis process – I truly could not ask for a better committee member. Thank you to Dr. Yvonne Bohr for also serving on my examining committee.

I would like to thank the funding bodies that have supported me throughout this journey, including the Ontario Graduate Scholarship, LaMarsh Research and Leadership Awards, Graduate Scholarships, and Knox Richie Award.

My gratitude goes out to the members of the Tamim Epidemiology Lab – Vrati, Durdana, Rahim, Peri, and Maria; and honorary members Arun and Emerald for the unwavering support, kindness, and laughs that were shared over the past two years. You all have bright futures ahead and I am excited to watch all the successes in the years to come.

A special shoutout goes to Dr. Eyawo for being an excellent mentor and engaging me in honest conversations – you have taught me great lessons which has helped me become a better person. To Lavina in the KAHS office, thank you for lending an ear and providing me with continuous advice and encouragement throughout this entire process.

I would like to thank Gordon, Irene, Justeena, and Benjamin from my time at LaMarsh. I am truly enamoured by the brilliance and enthusiasm radiating from this team.

I want to thank everyone from Mount Sinai's Obstetrics & Gynaecology Research Department for introducing me to the world of clinical research and the flexibility that was extended to me as a graduate student. A special shoutout to Kim, Ryan, and Sarah – for helping me secure the data to my thesis. Thank you Dr. Murphy and Dr. Snelgrove for acting as incredible advisors and being available to have discussions about this thesis.

To all of my wonderful friends, from before and during my journey in graduate school – there are too many to list, however, you all know who you are. I am so grateful to have close friends that embody the spirit of kindness, generosity, encouragement, and support. All the late-night chats, memories, vent sessions, and critical discussions I will carry with me forever.

Last but certainly not least, I am eternally grateful to my family. *I stand on the shoulders of giants who come before me.* From my wonderful cousins to extended family – I have been motivated by the constant support and enthusiasm they have given me. My Ammapa and Ammama, thank you for calling after every meeting and supporting me through every decision, you have been my closest confidants throughout this entire process. To my Appama, you have showed me what it means to persevere and love life, I will forever be thankful for you 'protecting' me and loving me unconditionally. To my late Ammamamama – you are an inspiration for all the strong women in our family, I hope your zest for education continues to touch generations to come. My Amma and Appa – you are the true definition of love and sacrifice. You have allowed me the privilege of a beautiful and supportive foundation to explore and grow. Thank you for encouraging me in all my decisions, and being my eternal source of nutrition, transportation, and shelter. To Akshitha, the only person that can make me laugh until I cry - all while editing my work and hardly ever receiving credit. Thank you for being the light of our family, for always being honest, and for being my brilliant wise little best friend.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	vii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	viii
EXTENDED INTRODUCTION.....	1
Reproductive Adversity, Preterm Birth & Consequences.....	1
Menarche, Trends & Importance of Timing.....	3
Significance of Early Menarche & Preterm Birth.....	4
Framework.....	5
MANUSCRIPT.....	7
ABSTRACT.....	7
INTRODUCTION.....	9
METHODS.....	12
Study Design & Participants.....	12
Main Outcome Variable.....	13
Main Exposure Variable.....	13
Covariates.....	14
Statistical Analysis.....	14
Research Ethics.....	15
RESULTS.....	16
DISCUSSION.....	18
CONCLUSION.....	23
EXTENDED DISCUSSION.....	30
Early Menarche.....	30
Preterm Birth.....	33
Future Directions & Implications.....	34
REFERENCES.....	36
APPENDIX.....	52

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Frequencies and unadjusted odds ratios (OR) with corresponding 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) of experiencing a preterm birth, based on the Ontario Birth Study
..... 24 →

Table 2 Multivariable adjusted odds ratios (OR) with corresponding 95% confidence intervals (95% CI) of experiencing a preterm birth, based on the Ontario Birth Study
..... 27 →

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

PTB: Preterm Birth

OR: Odds Ratio

aOR: Adjusted Odds Ratio

CI: Confidence Interval

OBS: Ontario Birth Study

GA: Gestational Age

IVF: In vitro fertilization

IUI: Intrauterine insemination

BMI: Body mass index

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

LSQ1: Lifestyle Questionnaire 1

LSQ2: Lifestyle Questionnaire 2

LSQ3: Lifestyle Questionnaire 3

SOGC: Society of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists of Canada

ACOG: American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists

EXTENDED INTRODUCTION

Reproductive Adversity, Preterm Birth & Consequences

Reproduction, or the creation of life, is often regarded as one of the most important biological processes known to humankind. Although the process of pregnancy is essential to the survival of humans, many pregnancies around the world endure some sort of complication or adversity.^{1,2} Pregnancy complications alone affect millions of families worldwide, which ranges in severity and outcomes.^{3,4}

Preterm birth (PTB), or delivery of the fetus between 20 to before 37 weeks of gestation, is one of the world's leading pregnancy complication and the number one leading cause of neonatal mortality globally.⁵ Delivering a baby preterm is associated with negative early and late-life outcomes for the baby and their parents. Children born preterm experience longer hospital admissions,⁶ have an increased risk of sensory deficiencies,⁷ neurodevelopmental disorders,⁸ physical impairment,⁹ as well as behavioural and emotional difficulties.^{10,11} As adults, preterm infants are more likely to develop chronic diseases including heart disease,¹² hypertension,¹³ and type 2 diabetes.¹⁴ Not only do these babies face long-term consequences, their parents and extended family also experience negative health and emotional effects following a preterm and unexpected delivery. Parents of preterm children report developing signs of posttraumatic stress disorder following the birthing process and continue to experience these symptoms after their children are discharged from the Neonatal Intensive Care Unit.¹⁵ Moreover, the effects of preterm delivery on parental stress is exacerbated by caesarean section and the limited contact with their baby after birth.¹⁶ Increased feelings of anxiety, depression, and extreme fatigue are also noted among these parents, which are linked to poor pregnancy

recovery and signs of delayed infant development.¹⁷ An investigation by Wolke et al. (2014) argues that parents of preterm infants are less likely to initiate early contact with their children which can lead to a disorganized and detached parenting attachment style.¹⁸ Similarly, a study conducted by Henderson et al. (2016) reported that mothers of preterm infants develop fewer positive feelings towards their baby, which adversely affects the later life development of the child.¹⁵

Due to the many consequences of PTBs, the prevention of preterm labour has been a topic of interest for several decades. Despite the years of research behind the determinants of PTB, it remains increasingly prevalent in both developing and developed nations and is the cause for many neonatal hospitalizations globally.^{5,19} PTB is a challenge for scientists and clinicians, however the primary cause of a preterm delivery has yet to be clearly outlined.^{20,21} Cases of PTBs are difficult to assess, wide ranging, and postulated to be underrepresented due to the nature of pregnancy care and data collection around the world.^{21,22} A systematic review published in *The Lancet Global Health* estimated that close to 15 million infants were born premature in 2014.²² Of all PTBs in 2014, 81% of deliveries were attributed to women delivering in Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. However, on a global scale, over 90% of all available data on prematurity comes from middle-and higher-income countries, whom only account for less than 5% of the world's births.²² Therefore, cases and severity of PTBs are estimated to be much higher than currently projected.

To date, the literature and knowledge surrounding PTB and all associated outcomes are assessed through experimental and observational studies. Given that the prognosis and pathways of preterm labour are largely complex, clinicians often rely on external symptoms and previously identified risk factors to assess the probability of PTB from pregnancy to pregnancy. Therefore,

more studies on PTB and any associated factors is vital to reduce the existing burden of PTB on the healthcare system and on families.

Menarche, Trends & Importance of Timing

Menarche, the first mensural cycle, experienced by a female can often act as a key developmental marker for physical, nutritional, and reproductive health.²³ Unlike other developmental and pubertal features that may appear gradually, menarche is a sudden event that marks the start of puberty.^{24,25} The onset of menarche can also be considered one of the initial signs of possible fertility and can act as a good predictor of future obstetrical health.²⁵ Unfortunately, although a good predictor of female health, menarche, specifically the timing of menarche, is generally a discrete event which is underreported and overlooked by the medical community as an indicator of health.²⁶

The timing of menarche varies between most females, with many experiencing their first menstrual period between ages 10 to 16.^{27,28} The worldwide average age of menarche is difficult to estimate accurately and varies significantly by geographical region, race, and ethnicity.²⁸ However, the study of menarche has garnered attention from researchers as there is a general decline in the average age around the world, with more females reporting earlier ages at menarche compared to previous decades.²⁹ Plenty of drivers, including genetic and environmental factors, are proposed to explain this shift in timing; however, there is mixed consensus surrounding the primary influencing factors driving early menarche.^{25,29} Remarkably, research suggests that the average age at menarche is observed to be generally lower in countries located in the Global North, compared to the countries in the Global South. Investigations in Canada, England, and the United States show the average age of menarche to be 12.7 years,³⁰

12.7 years,³¹ and 12.3 years respectively.³² When observing countries in the Global South like India,³³ Vietnam,³⁴ and Ethiopia,³⁵ age of menarche ranges from 13.8 years to 15.8 years. The reason for this downward trend in developed countries is unknown, although factors such as industrialization, nutrient-poor foods, and sedentary behaviors are identified to play an important role.²⁹ With age at menarche being studied across the globe, investigations have signalled that an early age at menarche may be a negative predictor for later life events.^{25,36,37}

Females who experience an earlier age at menarche are more likely to be at risk for developing poor health conditions such as cardiovascular disease,³⁸ type 2 diabetes,³⁹ and cancer.³⁶ Early menarche is also associated with a higher risk of asthma,⁴⁰ obesity,⁴¹ substance use,⁴² and mood disorders including psychosocial disorders, antisocial behaviours, bipolar disorders, depression, and increased levels of anxiety among women worldwide.⁴²⁻⁴⁴ A meta-analysis by Baams and colleagues (2015) found that an early age at puberty is also associated with risky sexual behaviours, such as no contraception use, higher likelihood of contracting sexually transmitted diseases, and unwanted pregnancies.⁴⁵ Additionally, the life history theory notes that in poor and stressful environments, early menarche may be a sign of earlier mortality, and subsequently the body signals early reproduction to maximize the potential to procreate prior to a fatal event.⁴⁶ Following that hypothesis, independent studies by Jacobsen et al. (2007) and Tamakoshi et al. (2011) both observed that early menarche is correlated with an increased all-cause mortality among women.^{47,48}

Significance of Early Menarche & Preterm Birth

As menarche is essentially the very first sign of reproductive potential, it can be hypothesized to have an effect on later-life reproductive outcomes. With many poor later life

outcomes associated with an early age at menarche, it is important that more research is done to assess how early age at menarche plays a role in reproduction. Moreover, given the upward trend in PTB and the downward trend in age at menarche across the globe, it is also important to assess the impact that the time of menarche may have on the timing of birth. Additionally, using data from Canada would provide insight on the trends that may be occurring among a specific demographic in the Global North, whom seem to be experiencing more PTBs all while experiencing a steeper decline in average age at menarche. It is important to add possible risk factors to the literature, as PTB mechanisms and pathways are unclear and are continuously changing.

Framework

Based on the literature, the life history theory is gaining traction among the public health community for exploring variations among human behaviours and outcomes.⁴⁹ The life history theory seeks to explain how evolutionary forces, such as natural selection, shape the reproductive and survival strategy of individuals during intense periods of stress and potential danger. This theory was originally developed to predict the interactions and trade-offs between biological traits that contribute directly to birth and death.⁴⁹ A review conducted by Ellis (2004) proposed that under the life history theory of reproduction, the timing of pubertal maturation may be considered a trade-off in reproductive strategies under stressful and potentially harmful environments.⁵⁰ As such, under risky circumstances, earlier age at menarche and early reproductive development may promote immediate and short-term reproductive success. Although accelerated reproduction may result in a higher quantity of offspring, they are often lower in biological fitness due to insufficient resource allocation.⁵⁰ Equally, in safer and less

stressful environments, late reproductive maturity would favor long-term and resource intensive reproduction that results in less offspring with a higher biological fitness.⁵⁰ Therefore, there is reason to believe that early-life triggers may affect age at menarche and consequently PTB.

The life history theory also postulates a potential trade-off between maternal and fetal success, making PTB unavoidable for mothers at all age ranges.⁴⁹ For younger-aged mothers, nutritional energy and growth-related biological resources would be in direct competition with the fetus, making it difficult for both mother and baby to receive equal resources. However, among relatively older-aged mothers, pregnancy may be in direct competition with natural senescence and may cause the body to divert energy towards itself to ensure self-preservation during a resource depleting period.⁴⁹ In essence, the life history theory can be used as an important model to help incorporate biological, evolutionary, and environmental conditions in the study of reproductive behaviours and potential.

MANUSCRIPT

Examining the Association Between Early Menarche and Preterm Birth: A Retrospective Cohort Study

ABSTRACT

Background: Preterm birth (PTB) is the main cause of perinatal mortality and morbidity globally, where 60-80% of deaths in infants are related to premature delivery. Menarche is a discrete event that is linked to poor pregnancy outcomes. However, evidence for a significant association between early menarche and PTB is mixed and limited. Therefore, the main objective of this study was to determine if early age at menarche is associated with PTB.

Methods: Secondary data analysis was conducted using data from the Ontario Birth Study (OBS) that included a cohort of women who delivered at Mount Sinai Hospital in Toronto, Canada. Inclusion criteria required participants to answer two lifestyle questionnaires between 2013 and 2019. Exclusion criteria included women with non-viable pregnancies, known fetal abnormalities, multiple gestation, delivery prior to 20 weeks' gestation, a stillbirth, previous PTB, missing gestational age (GA) at delivery, and missing age at menarche. The main outcome, PTB, was defined as neonatal delivery from 20 weeks gestation up to and including 36 weeks and six days at gestation. The main exposure, age at menarche, was assessed by the following question from the questionnaire: "How old were you when you had your first menstrual period?" Covariates were adjusted for and categorized in the following groups: Maternal Sociodemographic, Health, and Clinical Pregnancy Factors. A multivariable logistic regression

was conducted to assess the effect of early menarche on the risk of PTB adjusting for all covariates.

Results: The prevalence of early menarche in the OBS was 17% and the overall risk of PTB was 4.2%. Overall, 7.0% of the women who had early menarche went on to experience a PTB in their current pregnancy, compared to 3.7% of women who experienced a later age at menarche. The unadjusted association between early menarche and PTB was statistically significant (OR: 1.98, 95% CI: 1.11-3.54); however, after adjusting for all covariates, the relationship was no longer significant (OR: 1.68, 95% CI: 0.84-3.36). Significant predictors of a PTB included women who experienced any hypertensive disorders and those who had fetal or placental complications prior to delivery. Women in the highest income group were significantly at a decreased risk of a PTB compared to the rest of the population.

Conclusion: Results can be used as a baseline in investigating the intricacies between early reproductive factors and later life pregnancy outcomes, which may be important to the future of maternal and infant health.

INTRODUCTION

Every expecting family hopes for a relatively smooth experience during pregnancy, however a significant proportion of pregnancies experience an adverse maternal or fetal outcome.¹⁹ Pregnancy related complications range in severity and vary between every individual.^{3,51} Globally, preterm birth (PTB) is one of the most commonly seen pregnancy complications.⁵ PTB, or birth before 37 weeks of gestation, occurs in approximately 5-13% of pregnancies worldwide affecting almost 15 million infants.^{5,52-54} PTB is the main cause of perinatal mortality and morbidity across the globe, where 60-80% of deaths in infants are related to PTB complications.^{53,55} Hospitalization in a neonatal intensive care unit is estimated to cost \$1500 per day, and total neonatal care for preterm infants approaches \$8 billion per year in Canada.^{6,56,57} This represents a significant financial and social burden to caregivers and the Canadian healthcare system.^{56,57} There is no single etiological pathway that predicts who will experience a PTB. Instead, healthcare professionals rely on clinical signs and symptoms such as abdominal cramping, premature rupture of the membrane, pelvic pressure, backache, and dilated/shortened cervix to diagnose potential preterm labour.⁵⁸⁻⁶⁰ The etiology of PTBs is not completely understood, but is known to be multifactorial. Previous research across various countries suggests that risk factors for PTB include sociodemographic characteristics, behavioral factors, and aspects of obstetric history.^{53,61,62}

Menarche, or the age at first menstrual period, is identified as an indicator of puberty that can help determine future health risks.²³ Associations with early age of menarche are studied across the globe, with many studies linking early menarche to adverse health outcomes.⁶³⁻⁶⁶ Global investigations note an alarming trend of a decreasing average age of menarche over the

past century.^{25,67} More importantly, research has observed that females who reside in the Global North currently experience menarche at significantly younger ages in comparison to their counterparts in the Global South.³⁰⁻³² Early menarche is linked to negative later life outcomes including a higher risk of developing breast cancer,^{36,68,69} cardiovascular disease,^{38,70} type 2 diabetes,^{39,71} and asthma.^{40,72} An earlier age at menarche is also linked to poor pregnancy outcomes including low birth weight,⁷³ spontaneous abortion,⁷⁴ and ectopic pregnancy.⁷⁵ Previous studies suggest that early menarche is associated with PTB risk factors such as obesity,^{41,76} infections,^{77,78} and psychological stress.^{79,80} Biological investigations have linked early menarche to higher estradiol levels,^{81,82} elevated C-reactive protein levels,⁸³ and high blood glucose levels in adulthood,^{37,84} all of which are associated with an increased risk of PTB.⁸⁵⁻⁸⁸

The life history theory as a framework for pregnancy and other reproductive outcomes is growing in popularity over the last several decades. It is an evolutionary perspective that is used to explain the idiosyncrasies among key life stages, including birth, reproduction, and death.⁷³ Additionally, the life history theory makes use of both physiological and environmental viewpoints in order to evaluate potential outcomes. Due to the downward trend of age at menarche and higher incidence of PTB, the life history theory may be an important tool to examine whether negative health outcomes may be an evolutionary adaptive trait and also a biologically predictive one.⁸⁹ A key area of the life history theory is the idea of a biological trade-off between maternal and fetal resources.⁸⁹ This may be particularly interesting to explore, as reproductive behaviours often come in direct competition with the biological potential of both mother and fetus. Additionally, the life history theory postulates that early and later life environmental triggers may play a role in maladaptive behaviours like early menarche and PTB,⁷³ which is also a noteworthy concept to consider throughout this investigation.

To date, there is only a few studies worldwide which have assessed the association between menarche and PTB. An American case-control study conducted by Berkowitz in 1981, examined a group of 488 mothers who delivered at Yale-New Haven Hospital for one year. Although women who experienced a PTB reached menarche at a younger age, the results were not significant.⁹⁰ A subsequent investigation published in 1998 by Hennessy and Alberman in the United Kingdom found that teenage mothers who experience late menarche were more likely to experience PTB (OR: 1.51, 95% CI: 1.1-2.1).⁹¹ Although these results are critical to the understanding of menarche's role in PTB, this study neglected to adjust for any covariates and failed to include mothers over the age of twenty.⁹¹ A more recent study from China conducted by Li et al. (2017), examined a group of 11,016 births to study the relationship between menarche and PTB. They concluded that women who had early menarche (≤ 11 years) were 1.67 times more likely to experience PTB compared to those who experienced menarche at age 13 (OR: 1.67; 95% CI: 1.18, 2.36).⁹² However, this study failed to adjust for noteworthy clinical pregnancy variables, including placental issues or fetal complications prior to delivery. The results of all of these studies are inconclusive and exhibit mixed results, therefore the relationship between early menarche and PTB is in need of additional investigation. It is important to consider whether menarche should be considered an essential health measure when screening for potential pregnancy complications, as there is a gap in the current literature. Therefore, the objective of this investigation is to determine if early age at menarche is associated with PTB in a cohort of women delivering in Toronto, Canada.

METHODS

Study Design & Participants

Data from the Ontario Birth Study (OBS) was used for this study. The OBS is an open longitudinal pregnancy cohort study initiated in 2013 at Mount Sinai Hospital in Toronto, Canada. The data collected by the OBS is used by researchers interested in exploring pregnancy and any related conditions. More details about the OBS can be found on their website.⁹³

The OBS has data collection scheduled to coincide with routine pregnancy care to minimize the burden of research activities on participants. Pregnant women were approached at their first ultrasound or first antenatal appointment by trained research staff who recruit participants that fit the inclusion criteria. For women who consented to participate in the OBS, lifestyle questionnaires, diet history questionnaires, biospecimens, and clinical delivery data were collected as a part of the study during routine antenatal appointments. Lifestyle questionnaires were distributed during three time periods. Lifestyle questionnaire 1 (LSQ1) was completed between 12-16 weeks of gestation, lifestyle questionnaire 2 (LSQ2) was given to participants between 28-32 weeks, and lifestyle questionnaire 3 (LSQ3) was completed at the 6-10 weeks postpartum period. All lifestyle questionnaires were administered to participants in their choice of paper or web-based format. If the participant chose to complete the questionnaires on the paper-based form, trained research staff input the data into REDCap (version 8.10.2.), a secure and electronic data capture tool hosted at Mount Sinai Hospital.⁹⁴ For the current study, data from both LSQ1 and LSQ2, along with clinical delivery data, were used.

Inclusion criteria for the OBS included women who were less than 17 weeks gestational age (GA) at recruitment, over the age of 18, spoke and understood English, were able to provide

signed informed consent, and were planning to have their antenatal care and birth at Mount Sinai Hospital. Inclusion criteria for the current study included any OBS participant who answered both LSQ1 and LSQ2 between 2013 to 2019. Exclusion criteria for both the OBS and this study included the following conditions: a non-viable pregnancy, a fetus with a known significant abnormality associated with a low probability of survival, had multiple gestation, recalled a previous PTB, delivered prior to 20 weeks' gestation, had a fetal demise or stillbirth, did not report an age at menarche, or had missing information on GA at the time of birth.

Main Outcome Variable

The main outcome of this study was PTB. PTB was defined as neonatal delivery between 20-weeks gestation (140 days) up to and including 36 weeks and six days of gestation (258 days), which was obtained from the clinical delivery data. The definition of PTB was derived from the guidelines endorsed by the Society of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists of Canada (SOGC) and the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists (ACOG).^{95,96} The GA for the OBS participants was defined by using the dating ultrasound, and if unavailable, the last menstrual period.

Main Exposure Variable

The exposure for this investigation was age at menarche. The participants were asked about their age at menarche in LSQ1 with the following question: "How old were you when you had your first menstrual period?" For this investigation, age at menarche was dichotomized to 'early menarche' or 'not early menarche'. Consistent with previous literature, early menarche was defined as one (1) standard deviation less than the mean age at menarche in the study

sample.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷ Those who answered, ‘don’t know’, ‘prefer not to answer’, or ‘never had a menstrual period’ were excluded from the analysis.

Covariates

A complete list of covariates that have been identified as potential predictors of PTB were adjusted for in this study. These covariates were categorized in the following groups: ‘Maternal Sociodemographic Factors’ (including age, ethnicity, marital status, education, employment, and income); ‘Health Factors’ (including pre-pregnancy BMI, pre-existing diabetes, gestational diabetes, hypertensive disorders of pregnancy, infection during pregnancy, emotional health, smoking during pregnancy, and alcohol use during pregnancy); and ‘Clinical Pregnancy Factors’ (including IVF/IUI pregnancy, parity, previous pregnancy loss <20 weeks GA, fetal complications [including fetal anomaly, isoimmunization/alloimmunization, intrauterine growth restriction, large for GA, oligohydramnios, and polyhydramnios], and placental complication [including placental abruption, placenta accrete, increta, percreta, and previa]).

Statistical Analysis

Summary statistics and bivariable associations between the main outcome and exposure variables were conducted. A logistic multivariable regressions analysis was performed to control for covariates. The multivariable model adjusted for all maternal sociodemographic factors, health factors, and clinical pregnancy factors. Both unadjusted and adjusted Odds Ratios (ORs and aORs, respectively) along with the 95% Confidence Intervals (CIs) were reported. In addition, several potential interaction terms were investigated including a) age at menarche and

parity, b) age at menarche and pre-pregnancy BMI, c) age at menarche and pre-existing diabetes, d) age at menarche and gestational diabetes, and e) age at menarche and hypertensive disorders of pregnancy. Statistical significance for all analyses were set at $\alpha < .05$ for a two-tailed test. All analyses were conducted using The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 24.0 (IBM Corp, Armonk, NY, USA) and Stata Statistical Software version 13.0 (StataCorp, College Park, TX, USA).

Research Ethics

Research ethics approval for this investigation was obtained from York University's Research Office, alongside Mount Sinai Hospital's Research Ethics Board, approved on October 8th, 2019 for a one-year period for data analysis.

RESULTS

Between 2013 and 2019, the OBS enrolled 2,711 women. Approximately 30% of the respondents enrolled in the OBS did not complete either LSQ1 or LSQ2 and were considered missing for the analysis. Additionally, after all other study specific exclusions an additional 23% of the sample was excluded. Overall, a sample of 1,413 women were included in this analysis. The average age at menarche for the study sample was 12.7 years old. The prevalence of early menarche for women in the OBS was 17% and the overall risk of PTB was 4.2%.

Frequencies, along with unadjusted logistic regressions, are displayed in Table 1. Among women with early menarche, 7.0% went on to experience a PTB in their current pregnancy compared to the 3.7% of women who had a later age at menarche. Prior to adjusting for covariates, those who had early menarche were almost two times more likely to experience a PTB, compared to women who had a later menarche (OR: 1.98, 95% CI: 1.11-3.54).

Additionally, women who reported their marital or relationship status as single accounted for 1.8% of the study respondents; however, 15% of these single mothers experienced a PTB compared to the 4.0% of women in a relationship (Table 1). Women above age 40 also experienced a higher rate of PTB (6.2%) compared to women in any other age category.

Smoking during pregnancy (< .04%) was removed from the analysis due to low sample size.

Results displayed in Table 2 outline the adjusted logistic regression and the various covariates associated with PTB. After adjusting for maternal sociodemographic, health factors, and clinical pregnancy factors, early menarche was 1.68 times more likely to result in a PTB; however, the relationship was no longer statistically significant (aOR: 1.68, 95% CI: 0.84-3.36). Additionally, women who reported a household income in the second highest income bracket

[\$100,000-149,999] were more than 2.5 times more likely to have a PTB compared to those in the highest household income [$> \$150,000$] (aOR: 2.54, 95% CI: 1.27-5.06). Among health factors, women who experienced any hypertensive disorders during pregnancy showed a strong statistical association with having a PTB h compared to women who had no hypertensive issues throughout their pregnancy (aOR: 3.77, 95% CI: 1.51-9.41). For clinical pregnancy factors, women who had fetal complications prior to delivery had significantly greater odds of PTB (aOR: 2.37, 95% CI: 1.12-5.02) compared to pregnancies with no fetal complications. Further, women who had placental complications had 3.5 times greater odds of a PTB, compared to their counterparts (aOR: 3.50, 95% CI: 1.26-9.97). All interaction terms were not significant ($p > .05$).

DISCUSSION

The current study aimed to assess the association between early menarche and PTB among the participants of the OBS. This study is among the first to explore the association of early reproductive markers and PTB while adjusting for key maternal sociodemographic, health, and clinical pregnancy factors. When examining the association between early menarche and PTB, 7.0% of women who experienced early menarche went on to have a preterm delivery. The crude association between early menarche and PTB was statistically significant; however, after controlling for all associated covariates, the relationship between early menarche and PTB was positive but no longer significant. Characteristics of women who had a PTB include those who experienced any hypertensive disorders during their pregnancy, and women who had fetal or placental complications prior to their delivery. Moreover, mothers who belonged to the highest income group were at a decreased risk of a PTB. These findings contribute and add to the broader knowledge about the effects of early reproductive factors on later-life pregnancy outcomes.

Results from this investigation are distinctive from the findings of other studies that sought to examine the relationship between early menarche and PTB. A recent analysis conducted by Li et al. (2017) found that among a sample of Chinese women enrolled in the Healthy Baby Cohort study, those with early menarche were at a significantly greater risk of experiencing a PTB, even after adjusting for some confounding variables.⁹² These findings were inconsistent with the results of the current study, which may be attributed to the contrast in sample size used in both investigations. The Healthy Baby Cohort included over eleven thousand women, which may allow it to better represent the study population, give it more statistical

power, and reduce the margin of error. Additionally, the ethnic profiles of both cohorts were pointedly dissimilar as the Healthy Baby Cohort had a higher number of Chinese-Asian women compared to the OBS which is represented by a larger number of White-North American women. This may be interesting to note, as White women have historically experienced lower levels of PTB compared to women of colour. Moreover, Li et al. (2017) categorized early menarche into 5 different categories, while this study dichotomized age at menarche, which may have led to differences in the final results. Conversely, an American study conducted in 1981 noted similar results to the ones found in the current investigation. Berkowitz (1981) observed that women who delivered preterm at Yale-New Haven Hospital reached menarche at a younger age; but, the results were not significant.⁹⁰ The ethnic profile and socioeconomic conditions of that study were similar to the sample in the OBS; however, that investigation took place approximately four decades prior and represented a relatively younger cohort of women. Therefore, it may be difficult to draw parallels with the changes in demographics and environmental factors that have occurred over time.

In regard to maternal sociodemographic factors, women in the highest income bracket [> \$150,000] had a reduced risk of PTB compared to all other categories (Table 2). Income, whether it be at the community, neighbourhood, household, or individual level, is used to illustrate disparities among mothers experiencing poor pregnancy outcomes in several countries.⁹⁷⁻¹⁰⁰ Among women delivering in British Columbia, those in the highest income quintile had a lower risk of delivering preterm infants.¹⁰¹ Additionally, an investigation by Luo and colleagues (2006) found similar results in Quebec, noting that individuals and neighbourhoods with a lower socioeconomic status are more likely to experience negative pregnancy outcomes.⁹⁹ Interestingly, many of the studies investigating individual measures of

socioeconomic status and birth outcomes are conducted in the United Kingdom and the United States, where rates of income disparities and access to basic healthcare varies greatly from the Canadian population.^{97,100,102} Regardless, on a global scale, the consensus surrounding the role of income and PTB is mixed, with many postulating that the role of income in predicting pregnancy outcomes is intricate and needs further exploration.

Among health and clinical factors, having any hypertensive disorder during pregnancy, a fetal complication, or a placental complication prior to delivery were factors associated with a higher risk of experiencing a PTB. These predictors are iatrogenic, or medically indicated, and considered by the prenatal healthcare provider in the event of the rapidly declining health of the mother or the fetus.¹⁰³ Hypertensive disorders in pregnancy, especially preeclampsia, is not fully understood by the medical community and global efforts to treat and prevent these disorders show limited potential.^{104,105} Therefore, in the case of a severe and uncontrollable progression of the disorder, early delivery is the only definitive treatment to end the threat of maternal-fetal morbidity and mortality.¹⁰⁶ For women who develop preeclampsia and are able to manage with mild symptoms, delivery is recommended at 37 weeks of gestation.¹⁰³ However, for women who progress to severe preeclampsia, delivery at any GA is recommended.¹⁰⁶ A study conducted by Barton et al. (2011), highlighted that over 25% of women with stable or mild gestational hypertensive complications had iatrogenic and elective preterm deliveries, with rates of prematurity expected to rise in groups of women with a more severe diagnosis.¹⁰⁷ Fetal complications including fetal asphyxia, intrauterine growth restriction, fetal anemia, oligohydramnios, and fetal chromosomal abnormalities are shown to increase the risk of premature deliveries.^{103,108} Moreover, placental complications throughout pregnancy including placenta accrete, placenta increta and percreta, placenta previa, vasa previa, and placental

abruption is noted to increase the likelihood of medically indicated preterm deliveries to prevent the risk of maternal hemorrhaging and fetal death.¹⁰³

In regard to both early age at menarche and PTB, much of the literature suggests that early life circumstances have a key role in determining the timing of reproductive events. Previous literature notes that increased access to highly processed foods, urbanization, and sedentary behaviour during childhood is associated with an early age at menarche.²⁴ Additionally, girls who report undergoing early life emotional trauma, paternal absence, and sexual assault also are at a higher odds of experiencing menarche at earlier ages.²⁴ Many of the same childhood factors associated with early menarche are also associated with the risk of adverse pregnancy outcomes. Therefore, it is important to assess the ongoing social effects that mothers undergo over their lifetime to get a comprehensive view of the social experiences shaping both early and later life reproductive outcomes. Given that sociodemographic factors are often intertwined with other early life factors, many studies have found it increasingly difficult to evaluate the underlying relationships between sociodemographic circumstances and both early and later life reproductive events.^{109,110} Therefore, future research should strive to incorporate early childhood exposures when evaluating the impact of early reproductive markers and subsequent pregnancy outcomes.

PTB and its associated perinatal morbidity and mortality has become a leading issue in the field of obstetrics. In an attempt to lower the rates of PTB, many researchers have sought to identify the pathophysiological, environmental, and social factors that play a contributing role. Although the results of this study add to the body of literature surrounding the effects of early reproductive factors and PTB, this study is subjected to a few limitations. The OBS relies partially on self-reported data and is therefore subject to recall bias, especially in relation to

recalling the exact age at menarche. Additionally, 30% of women enrolled in the OBS were excluded from the analysis due to missing LSQ1 and LSQ2 questionnaire information, which leaves a chance for selection bias. After analyzing the respondents and non-respondents, it was apparent that single women, those with a higher BMI, who had infections throughout their pregnancy, used assisted reproductive technology, or experienced fetal complications were significantly more likely to not complete their questionnaires prior to delivery (Table A1). Therefore, caution should be exercised while generalizing these results to the entire population. It may also be plausible that non-respondents, most of whom are considered at high-risk for preterm birth would have delivered early. If non-respondents were included in the analysis, it may have changed the overall results. Additionally, as this study did not consider any live births prior to 20 weeks' gestation, the analysis does not address all early deliveries, especially those that do not fall within the clinical guidelines of PTB. However, if early menarche is indeed associated with PTB it may be possible that delivery could have occurred prior to the 20-week gestational period. Despite these limitations, this study allows for a more in-depth investigation of different clinical pregnancy related covariates and considered a wider age range compared to the previously conducted research surrounding early menarche and PTB.

CONCLUSION

This is one of the few studies to explore the association between menarche and PTB while controlling for a wide range of maternal sociodemographic, health, and clinical pregnancy variables. This study illustrates a relationship between early menarche and the increased risk of a PTB on a crude level; however, this relationship became insignificant after adjusting for covariates. Given the number of pregnancies that result in a PTB, and the burden on both the families and the healthcare system, it is essential to investigate potential risk factors that can be used to screen and mitigate the potential challenges of PTB and associated adverse perinatal outcomes. Identifying predisposing risk factors is an important step to aid clinicians in assessing risk for patients and screen for on history and reassess throughout pregnancy. It is advisable that clinicians include a screening question about the age at menarche during adolescences and during routine pregnancy care to adequately collect more information in this field and gain a comprehensive view of a female's reproductive history. More studies are needed to expand the field of early reproductive factors and their effects on later life reproduction, specifically how different early life social environments may mediate these effects. Additionally, these results indicate that assessing the influence of early reproductive factors on later life reproduction may be an integral branch of perinatal health and reproductive potential in the future.

Table 1: Frequencies and unadjusted odds ratios (ORs) along with corresponding 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) of experiencing a preterm birth, based on the Ontario Birth Study.

	N	%	% Preterm Birth	Unadjusted OR	95% CI
Early Menarche					
No	1172	82.8	3.7	1	
Yes	242	17.1	7.0	1.98	1.11-3.54
Maternal Factors					
Age					
18-29	159	11.2	3.1	1	
30-34	728	51.4	4.4	1.42	0.54-3.70
35-39	430	30.4	4.0	1.27	0.46-3.50
40+	96	6.9	6.2	2.03	0.60-6.84
Ethnicity					
White	993	70.2	4.1	1	
Other ¹	123	8.7	7.3	1.83	0.87-3.87
East, South, South East Asian	263	18.6	3.4	0.82	0.40-1.72
Black	34	2.4	2.9	0.7	0.09-5.27
Marital Status					
Cohabiting/Married	1385	97.9	4.0	1	
Single	26	1.8	15	4.32	1.44-12.94
Education					
Graduate degree	574	40.6	4.0	1	
Bachelors	623	44	4.3	1.09	0.62-1.92
Post-secondary Trade, Diploma, Certificate	167	11.8	4.8	1.21	0.53-2.75
Secondary or less	41	2.9	4.9	1.23	0.28-5.40
Current Employment					
Employed	1276	90.3	4.3	1	
Not Employed	129	9.1	3.1	0.71	0.25-2.00
Household Income (\$)					
> 150,000	724	51.2	2.8	1	
100,000 – 149,999	339	24	6.8	2.56	1.39-4.73

50,000–99,999	212	15	5.2	1.93	0.91-4.09
<50,000	60	4.2	5.0	1.85	0.53-6.42
Health Factors					
Pre-pregnancy BMI					
Normal	940	66.4	3.6	1	
Underweight	67	4.7	2.2	0.44	0.06-3.31
Overweight	233	16.5	7.9	2.31	1.25-4.25
Obese	94	6.6	8.2	2.73	1.21-6.12
Pre-existing Diabetes²					
No	1381	97.6	4.2	1	
Yes	19	1.3	15.8	4.27	1.21-15.07
Gestational Diabetes					
No	1337	94.5	4.0	1	
Yes	78	5.5	7.7	1.98	0.82-4.76
Hypertensive Disorders					
No	1350	95.4	3.7	1	
Yes	65	4.6	15.4	4.73	2.28-9.82
Infection During Pregnancy³					
No	941	66.5	4.3	1	
Yes	474	33.5	4.2	0.99	0.57-1.72
Emotional Health					
No Emotional Concern	1309	92.5	4.1	1	
Emotional Instability	70	5	5.7	1.41	0.50-4.01
Alcohol Use During Pregnancy					
No	1120	79.2	4.2	1	
Yes	290	20.5	4.5	1.07	0.57-2.01
Clinical Pregnancy Factors					
IVF / IUI Pregnancy					
No	1265	89.4	4.0	1	
Yes	147	10.4	6.8	1.77	0.88-3.58

Parity					
Primiparous	1095	77.4	4.3	1	
Multiparous	306	21.7	4.2	0.99	0.53-1.85
Previous Pregnancy Loss					
No	955	67.5	4.0	1	
Miscarriage	260	18.4	4.2	1.07	0.53-2.12
Termination of Pregnancy	186	13.2	5.9	1.52	0.76-3.03
Fetal Complication⁴					
No	1270	89.8	3.6	1	
Yes	145	10.3	9.7	2.84	1.52-5.31
Placental Complication⁵					
No	1365	96.5	3.8	1	
Yes	50	3.5	17.6	4.81	2.15-10.76

¹Includes those that identified as one or more of the following: Indigenous (First Nations, Metis or Inuit), Arab, Latin American/Hispanic, or Other

²Pre-existing diabetes includes Type 1 and Type 2 diabetes, diagnosed by a healthcare provide prior to pregnancy

³Includes one or more of the following prior to delivery: flu, pneumonia, diarrhea, sinusitis, ear infection, cold sore, mouth infection, or other infection/inflammatory condition during pregnancy

⁴Fetal complications includes one or more of the following prior to delivery: fetal anomaly, isoimmunization/alloimmunization, intrauterine growth restriction, large for GA, oligohydramnios, or polyhydramnios

⁵Placental complications includes having one or more of the following prior to delivery: placental abruption, placenta accrete, increta, percreta, and previa

Table 2: Multivariable adjusted odds ratios (ORs), along with corresponding 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) of experiencing a preterm birth, based on the Ontario Birth Study.

	Adjusted OR	95% CI
Early Menarche		
No	1	
Yes	1.68	0.84-3.36
Maternal Factors		
Age		
18-29	1	
30-34	1.45	0.51-4.16
35-39	1.44	0.46-4.50
40+	1.11	0.23-5.33
Ethnicity		
White	1	
Other ¹	1.41	0.57-3.50
East, South, South East Asian	0.67	0.26-1.73
Black	0.56	0.06-5.35
Marital Status		
Cohabiting/Married	1	
Single	3.82	0.84-17.48
Education		
Graduate degree	1	
Bachelors	1.41	0.72-2.77
Post-secondary Trade, Diploma, Certificate	1.41	0.54-3.70
Secondary or less	1.13	0.20-6.56
Current Employment		
Employed	1	
Not Employed	0.95	0.31-2.94
Household Income (\$)		
> 150,000	1	
100,000 – 149,999	2.54	1.27-5.06
50,000–99,999	1.82	0.75-4.41

<50,000	1.80	0.39-8.31
Health Factors		
Pre-pregnancy BMI		
Normal	1	
Underweight	0.48	0.06-3.85
Overweight	1.79	0.90-3.56
Obese	1.67	0.63-4.46
Pre-existing Diabetes²		
No	1	
Yes	1.93	0.20-18.77
Gestational Diabetes		
No	1	
Yes	1.33	0.44-4.03
Hypertensive Disorders		
No	1	
Yes	3.77	1.51-9.41
Infection During Pregnancy³		
No	1	
Yes	1.03	0.55-1.92
Emotional Health		
No Emotional Concern	1	
Emotional Instability	1.36	0.39-4.77
Alcohol Use During Pregnancy		
No	1	
Yes	1.37	0.67-2.80
Clinical Pregnancy Factors		
IVF / IUI Pregnancy		
No	1	
Yes	1.18	0.47-2.98

Parity		
Primiparous	1	
Multiparous	1.25	0.55-2.84
Previous Pregnancy Loss		
No	1	
Miscarriage	1.21	0.51-2.86
Termination of Pregnancy	1.38	0.58-3.29
Fetal Complication⁴		
No	1	
Yes	2.37	1.12-5.02
Placental Complication⁵		
No	1	
Yes	3.50	1.26-9.97

¹Includes those that identified as one or more of the following: Indigenous (First Nations, Metis or Inuit), Arab, Latin American/Hispanic, or Other

²Pre-existing diabetes includes Type 1 and Type 2 diabetes, diagnosed by a healthcare provide prior to pregnancy

³Includes one or more of the following prior to delivery: flu, pneumonia, diarrhea, sinusitis, ear infection, cold sore, mouth infection, or other infection/inflammatory condition during pregnancy

⁴Fetal complications includes one or more of the following prior to delivery: fetal anomaly, isoimmunization/alloimmunization, intrauterine growth restriction, large for GA, oligohydramnios, or polyhydramnios

⁵Placental complications includes having one or more of the following prior to delivery: placental abruption, placenta accrete, increta, percreta, and previa

EXTENDED DISCUSSION

To outline, this thesis aimed to identify the relationship between an early reproductive behaviour and later life reproductive outcomes. More specifically, this thesis investigated the association between an early age at menarche and the risk of preterm birth (PTB) among a subpopulation of Canadian women. This study was based on a secondary analysis of a pregnancy-based cohort study, the OBS, conducted at Mount Sinai Hospital in Toronto, Canada. The current study is distinctive, as it adds to the body of literature surrounding reproductive behaviours while filling in the previously recognized gaps in the analysis. This thesis also presents a novel finding by identifying an approximate two-fold increase in PTB among women who experience early menarche; however, after adjusting for key variables this relationship remained positive but no longer significant. This extended discussion will probe deeper into plausible reasons for these findings and also discuss some future directions.

Early Menarche

The causes and effects of menarche can be classified as individually driven and dependent on a multitude of varying factors including genetics, the environment, and individual behaviour.^{24,30} Moreover, the life history theory's evolutionary perspective may also have a role in explaining the declining age at menarche. Although research surrounding menarche's characteristics, behaviour, and global prevalence is a topic of interest, much of the etiology has largely remained unexplained and heavily debated among the scientific community.^{25,78,111} Reproductive behaviours are associated with other biological events and are known to influence the timing of key life events, including fertility and menopause.^{24,28,75} It is important to note that many direct

factors which play a role in promoting an early menarche are linked to predicting early initiation of labour, and consequently PTB.^{19,109,112} Considering that many factors that drive reproductive behaviours are interconnected and follow a complex pathway, these factors may be the cause-and-effect for both early menarche and PTB. Below, two key factors that may play a large role in influencing both early menarche and PTB are outlined.

1) **Hormonal Activity**

The involvement in sex steroid hormones are frequently suggested to be a contributor of early menarche and the initiation of early labour, while also influencing other reproductive outcomes.^{113,114} Given that estrogen receptors are expressed in many tissues, they are likely to regulate central and peripheral biological processes and disturb the function of the hypothalamus, pituitary glands, and gonads.¹¹⁵ In regard to the age at menarche, an increase in neurological signals and neuropeptides from the hypothalamus alongside the peripheral gonadal signals have played a large role in the early initiation of puberty.¹¹⁶ Moreover, researchers hypothesize that an earlier age at menarche exposes the uterus and cervix to a longer duration of stimulation by female endogenous hormones, which has adverse effects on uterine function later in life.¹¹⁷⁻¹¹⁹ Previous literature notes that the association between age at first menarche and a poor labour experiences, including preterm labour, operative delivery, and an incompetent cervix can be linked to a prolonged stimulation of the uterus by endogenous hormones.¹²⁰ Therefore, increased levels of estrogen in some women throughout their adolescence into their adulthood may be an important factor in monitoring the potential relationship between an early age at menarche and risk of premature labour.

2) Stress

Early life stress and childhood social environment are noted to play a role in female reproductive success.^{46,98,121} Researchers have suggested that early menarche is often triggered in women who have stressful social and personal environments throughout their childhood. Women who have absent or abusive fathers, live in low-income neighbourhoods, or have faced sexual abuse are at more likely to experiencing an early age at menarche.^{122,123} Additionally, the scientific community's consensus on stress during pregnancy is wide-ranging and extensive. A study by Cole-Lewis (2014) noted that changes in stress levels between the second and third trimester is associated with an increased chance of preterm delivery, after controlling for important covariates.¹²¹ Studies on both objective and subjective levels of chronic and sudden stress highlight that unexpected events during pregnancy leads to poor overall reproductive outcomes.^{2,124} Interestingly, research from Kuras et al. (2017) and Shonkoff et al. (2012) suggest that children that undergo early life stressors are more likely to express worsened physiological responses during stressful experiences in adulthood.^{125,126} Therefore, it is possible that due to early life stressors, women may experience an earlier age at menarche and also develop a dysfunctional response to adulthood stressors that can worsen the body's response to pregnancy and signal early labour.^{124,127}

Accounting for these covariates are considered confounding, as their effect on the causal pathway is still undetermined. Inevitably, if covariates such as hormonal activity and stress are directly present in the causal pathway for both early menarche and PTB, it may obscure the statistical significance when included in the overall model. This may be true for various other

factors accounted for in this model, therefore it is important to also consider the bivariate relationships seen throughout this investigation. Additionally, when examining both hormonal activity and stress, the life history theory is justified as it describes PTB as an evolutionary adaptive behaviour in the face of adverse physical and environmental settings. More importantly, it is essential to dedicate more effort in understanding the complex relationship between many of the covariates suggested in this thesis, and help identify coherent frameworks that incorporate the biological, social, evolutionary and epidemiological perspective.

Preterm Birth

Currently, PTB can be classified into two broad groups: idiopathic or iatrogenic. Globally, close to 70-80% of PTBs are considered idiopathic, while 20-30% of all preterm deliveries are classified as iatrogenic.^{5,52,53} Idiopathic PTB can be defined as the spontaneous onset of labour which does not arise from a single known factor.²⁰ As such, idiopathic PTB can be a result of a premature rupture in the maternal amniotic membrane, an insufficient cervix, or may occur without a previously indicated cause.¹²⁸ Conversely, iatrogenic PTB is medically advised, often recommended for the safety of fetal or maternal health, and is a decision made cooperatively between the patient and their healthcare provider.¹²⁸ These medically indicated inductions often are preceded by poor health outcomes such as severe maternal hypertension, placental abruption, or intrauterine fetal restriction.^{52,108}

It is important to note that the biological and etiological pathway for both idiopathic and iatrogenic PTB are vastly different and are accompanied by different risk factors. Moreover, the differences underlying the various subtypes of preterm labour are seen to vary dramatically across different populations, regions, and geographical areas.⁵² Some common factors associated

with idiopathic PTB include maternal race, low socioeconomic status, and a short cervix.⁵³

However, iatrogenic PTB is usually associated with poor pre-pregnancy health status, multiple gestation, and older age.^{54,103}

Previous literature has suggested that medically indicated (iatrogenic) PTBs are directly associated with an earlier menarche, potentially signalling a relationship between the two. A study conducted by Lakshman et al. (2009) on over fifteen thousand females, indicated that those with an earlier age at menarche were at a higher risk of developing hypertension throughout their lives, compared to those with a later age at menarche.³⁸ Additionally, among a group of women in the United States, early menarche was associated with a three-fold increased risk of experiencing preeclampsia compared to their counterparts.¹²⁹ This raises the belief that early menarche may have distinctive effects on iatrogenic and idiopathic clinical subtypes of preterm delivery, making it important to analyze each separately. This investigation grouped all PTB under one group rather than investigating the clinical subtypes individually, which may be the reason for muted significance after the final statistical analysis. It may be plausible that early menarche may have a heightened effect on one type of preterm delivery, and simultaneously show no impact on the other. These micro-differences between clinical PTB types may be difficult to observe and capture, which is why risk factors may be difficult to predict.

Future Directions & Implications

Both early menarche and PTB pose significant public health issues around the globe. Therefore, the results of this thesis add insight into the field of maternal-child health and widen the path for more in-depth exploration. By better understanding the associations and consequences of these results, we can easily implore new screening tools that incorporate early

life reproductive behaviours and life history traits to better predict and manage pregnancy outcomes. To state simply, capturing the age at menarche can be done easily in clinical settings by adding one additional question to the routine screening process. This information is simple to collect and may go on to have large impact in the field of future female reproductive research. Currently, pregnancy is viewed primarily in a clinical setting; however, the literature and trends observed in this study suggests that pregnancy should incorporate a wide range of childhood and life history considerations. The future direction of this research needs to address the lack of representation of remote and minority communities in pregnancy and reproductive research to be able to better evaluate the ethnic, racial, and cultural impacts of menarche on PTB. Additionally, future investigations should include an emphasis on the early life sociodemographic factors which may be contributing to earlier age at menarche and a shorter gestational period. Moreover, studies should aim to examine the individual relationship between the different clinical subtypes of PTB and their respective health outcomes, as both types of preterm deliveries are characterized differently and have dissimilar biological pathways. By incorporating a broader interdisciplinary scope to reproductive health, researchers may be able to capture details and narrow down specifics that may have been previously ignored.

REFERENCES

1. Price SK. Prevalence and correlates of pregnancy loss history in a national sample of children and families. *Matern Child Health J.* 2006;10(6):489-500. doi:10.1007/s10995-006-0123-x
2. Vismara L. Perspectives on perinatal stressful and traumatic experiences. *Eur J Trauma Dissociation.* 2017;1(2):111-120. doi:10.1016/j.ejtd.2017.03.006
3. Campbell OMR, Graham WJ. Strategies for reducing maternal mortality: getting on with what works. *Lancet.* 2006;368(9543):1284-1299. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(06)69381-1
4. Sengoma JPS, Krantz G, Nzayirambaho M, Munyanshongore C, Edvardsson K, Mogren I. Prevalence of pregnancy-related complications and course of labour of surviving women who gave birth in selected health facilities in Rwanda: A health facility-based, cross-sectional study. *BMJ Open.* 2017;7(7):15015. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2016-015015
5. Wen SW, Smith G, Yang Q, Walker M. Epidemiology of preterm birth and neonatal outcome. *Semin Fetal Neonatal Med.* 2004;9(6):429-435. doi:10.1016/j.siny.2004.04.002
6. Petrou S, Mehta Z, Hockley C, Cook-Mozaffari P, Henderson J, Goldacre M. The Impact of Preterm Birth on Hospital Inpatient Admissions and Costs During the First 5 Years of Life. *Pediatrics.* 2003;112(6):1290-1297. doi:10.1542/peds.112.6.1290
7. De Paula Machado ACC, De Oliveira SR, De Castro Magalhães L, De Miranda DM, Bouzada MCF. Sensory processing during childhood in preterm infants: A systematic review. *Rev Paul Pediatr.* 2017;35(1):92-101. doi:10.1590/1984-0462/;2017;35;1;00008
8. Arpino C, Compagnone E, Montanaro ML, et al. Preterm birth and neurodevelopmental outcome: A review. *Child's Nerv Syst.* 2010;26(9):1139-1149. doi:10.1007/s00381-010-

1125-y

9. Trønnes H, Wilcox AJ, Lie RT, Markestad T, Moster D. Risk of cerebral palsy in relation to pregnancy disorders and preterm birth: a national cohort study. *Dev Med Child Neurol.* 2014;56(8):779-785. doi:10.1111/dmcn.12430
10. Hornman J, De Winter AF, Kerstjens JM, Bos AF, Reijneveld SA. Emotional and behavioral problems of preterm and full-term children at school entry. *Pediatrics.* 2016;137(5):e20152255. doi:10.1542/peds.2015-2255
11. Montagna A, Nosarti C. Socio-Emotional Development Following Very Preterm Birth: Pathways to Psychopathology. *Front Psychol.* 2016;7:80. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2016.00080
12. Bavineni M, Wassenaar TM, Agnihotri K, Ussery DW, Lüscher TF, Mehta JL. Mechanisms linking preterm birth to onset of cardiovascular disease later in adulthood. *Eur Heart J.* 2019;40(14):1107-1112. doi:10.1093/eurheartj/ehz025
13. Bertagnolli M, Luu TM, Lewandowski AJ, Leeson P, Nuyt AM. Preterm birth and hypertension: Is there a link? *Curr Hypertens Rep.* 2016;18(4):28. doi:10.1007/s11906-016-0637-6
14. Kajantie E, Osmond C, Barker DJP, Eriksson JG. Preterm birth - A risk factor for type 2 diabetes? The Helsinki Birth Cohort study. *Diabetes Care.* 2010;33(12):2623-2625. doi:10.2337/dc10-0912
15. Henderson J, Carson C, Redshaw M. Impact of preterm birth on maternal well-being and women's perceptions of their baby: A population-based survey. *BMJ Open.* 2016;6(10):e012676. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2016-012676
16. Franck LS, Cox S, Allen A, Winter I. Measuring neonatal intensive care unit-related parental stress. *J Adv Nurs.* 2005;49(6):608-615. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2648.2004.03336.x

17. Ionio C, Colombo C, Brazzoduro V, et al. Mothers and fathers in NICU: The impact of preterm birth on parental distress. *Eur J Psychol.* 2016;12(4):604-621.
doi:10.5964/ejop.v12i4.1093
18. Wolke D, Eryigit-Madzwamuse S, Gutbrod T. Very preterm/very low birthweight infants' attachment: Infant and maternal characteristics. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed.* 2014;99(1):F70-F75. doi:10.1136/archdischild-2013-303788
19. Kramer MS. The Epidemiology of Adverse Pregnancy Outcomes: An Overview. *J Nutr.* 2003;133(5):1592S–1596S. doi:10.1093/jn/133.5.1592S
20. Menon R. Spontaneous preterm birth, a clinical dilemma: Etiologic, pathophysiologic and genetic heterogeneities and racial disparity. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand.* 2008;87(6):590-600. doi:10.1080/00016340802005126
21. Muglia LJ, Katz M. The Enigma of Spontaneous Preterm Birth. *N Engl J Med.* 2010;362(6):529-535. doi:10.1056/NEJMra0904308
22. Chawanpaiboon S, Vogel JP, Moller AB, et al. Global, regional, and national estimates of levels of preterm birth in 2014: a systematic review and modelling analysis. *Lancet Glob Heal.* 2019;7(1):e37-e46. doi:10.1016/S2214-109X(18)30451-0
23. Divall SA, Radovick S. Pubertal Development and Menarche. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* 2008;1135(1):19-28. doi:10.1196/annals.1429.026
24. Mishra GD, Cooper R, Tom SE, Kuh D. Early life circumstances and their impact on menarche and menopause. *Women's Heal.* 2009;5(2):175-190.
doi:10.2217/17455057.5.2.175
25. Šaffa G, Kubicka AM, Hromada M, Kramer KL. Is the timing of menarche correlated with mortality and fertility rates? Navaneetham K, ed. *PLoS One.* 2019;14(4):e0215462.

- doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0215462
26. Sommer M, Robson MG, Sommer M. Menarche: a missing indicator in population health from low-income countries. *Public Health Rep.* 2013;128(5):399-401.
doi:10.1177/003335491312800511
 27. Parent AS, Teilmann G, Juul A, Skakkebaek NE, Toppari J, Bourguignon JP. The Timing of Normal Puberty and the Age Limits of Sexual Precocity: Variations around the World, Secular Trends, and Changes after Migration. *Endocr Rev.* 2003;24(5):668-693.
doi:10.1210/er.2002-0019
 28. Thomas F, Renaud F, Benefice E, De Meeüs T, Guegan JF. International variability of ages at menarche and menopause: Patterns and main determinants. *Hum Biol.* 2001;73(2):271-290. doi:10.1353/hub.2001.0029
 29. Walvoord EC. The timing of puberty: Is it changing? Does it matter? *J Adolesc Heal.* 2010;47(5):433-439. doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2010.05.018
 30. Al-Sahab B, Ardern CI, Hamadeh MJ, Tamim H. Age at menarche in Canada: Results from the National Longitudinal Survey of Children & Youth. *BMC Public Health.* 2010;10(1):736. doi:10.1186/1471-2458-10-736
 31. Morris DH, Jones ME, Schoemaker MJ, Ashworth A, Swerdlow AJ. Determinants of age at menarche in the UK: Analyses from the breakthrough generations study. *Br J Cancer.* 2010;103(11):1760-1764. doi:10.1038/sj.bjc.6605978
 32. Cabrera SM, Bright GM, Frane JW, Blethen SL, Lee PA. Age of thelarche and menarche in contemporary US females: A cross-sectional analysis. *J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab.* 2014;27(1-2):47-51. doi:10.1515/jpem-2013-0286
 33. Pathak PK, Tripathi N, Subramanian S V. Secular trends in menarcheal age in india-

- evidence from the Indian Human Development Survey. *PLoS One*. 2014;9(11):e111027.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0111027
34. Kim SH, Lee S, Lyu J, Hwang J, Chung H, Kim W. Secular trend in age at menarche for Vietnamese marriage immigrants in Korea born between 1960 and 1989. *FASEB J*. 2009;23:551-10. doi:10.1096/FASEBJ.23.1_SUPPLEMENT.551.10
 35. Zegeye DT, Megabiaw B, Mulu A. Age at menarche and the menstrual pattern of secondary school adolescents in northwest Ethiopia. *BMC Womens Health*. 2009;9(1):29. doi:10.1186/1472-6874-9-29
 36. Kotsopoulos J, Lubinski J, Lynch HT, et al. Age at menarche and the risk of breast cancer in BRCA1 and BRCA2 mutation carriers. *Cancer Causes Control*. 2005;16(6):667-674. doi:10.1007/s10552-005-1724-1
 37. Michelle Heys, C. Mary Schooling, Chaoqiang Jiang, et al. Age of Menarche and the Metabolic Syndrome in China. *Epidemiology*. 2007;18(6):740-746. doi:10.1097/EDE.0b013e3181567faf
 38. Lakshman R, Forouhi NG, Sharp SJ, et al. Early age at menarche associated with cardiovascular disease and mortality. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2009;94(12):4953-4960. doi:10.1210/jc.2009-1789
 39. He C, Zhang C, Hunter DJ, et al. Age at Menarche and Risk of Type 2 Diabetes: Results From 2 Large Prospective Cohort Studies. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2010;171(3):344. doi:10.1093/aje/kwp372
 40. Al-Sahab B, Hamadeh MJ, Ardern CI, Tamim H. Early menarche predicts incidence of asthma in early adulthood. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2010;73(1):64-70. doi:10.1093/aje/kwq324
 41. Yang L, Li L, Millwood IY, et al. Adiposity in relation to age at menarche and other

- reproductive factors among 300 000 Chinese women: findings from China Kadoorie Biobank study. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2017;6(2):502-512. doi:10.1093/ije/dyw165
42. Stice E, Presnell K, Bearman SK. Relation of early menarche to depression, eating disorders, substance abuse, and comorbid psychopathology among adolescent girls. *Dev Psychol*. 2001;37(5):608-619. doi:10.1037/0012-1649.37.5.608
43. Patton GC, Viner R. Pubertal transitions in health. *Lancet*. 2007;369(9567):1130-1139. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(07)60366-3
44. Tondo L, Pinna M, Serra G, De Chiara L, Baldessarini RJ. Age at menarche predicts age at onset of major affective and anxiety disorders. *Eur Psychiatry*. 2017;39:80-85. doi:10.1016/j.eurpsy.2016.08.001
45. Baams L, Dubas JS, Overbeek G, Van Aken MAG. Transitions in body and behavior: A meta-analytic study on the relationship between pubertal development and adolescent sexual behavior. *J Adolesc Heal*. 2015;56(6):586-598. doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2014.11.019
46. Chisholm JS, Quinlivan JA, Petersen RW, Coall DA. Early stress predicts age at menarche and first birth, adult attachment, and expected lifespan. *Hum Nat*. 2005;16(3):233-265. doi:10.1007/s12110-005-1009-0
47. Jacobsen BK, Heuch I, Kvåle G. Association of low age at menarche with increased all-cause mortality: A 37-year follow-up of 61,319 Norwegian women. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2007;166(12):1431-1437. doi:10.1093/aje/kwm237
48. Tamakoshi K, Yatsuya H, Tamakoshi A. Early age at menarche associated with increased all-cause mortality. *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2011;26(10):771-778. doi:10.1007/s10654-011-9623-0

49. Wells JCK, Nesse RM, Sear R, Johnstone RA, Stearns SC. Evolutionary public health: introducing the concept. *Lancet*. 2017;390(10093):500-509. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(17)30572-X
50. Ellis BJ. Timing of Pubertal Maturation in Girls: An Intergrated Life History Approach. *Psychol Bull*. 2004;130(6). doi:10.1037/0033-2909.130.6.920
51. Say L, Pattinson RC, Gülmezoglu AM. WHO systematic review of maternal morbidity and mortality: the prevalence of severe acute maternal morbidity (near miss). *Reprod Health*. 2004;1(1):3. doi:10.1186/1742-4755-1-3
52. Ananth C V., Vintzileos AM. Epidemiology of preterm birth and its clinical subtypes. *J Matern Neonatal Med*. 2006;19(12):773-782. doi:10.1080/14767050600965882
53. Goldenberg RL, Culhane JF, Iams JD, Romero R. Epidemiology and causes of preterm birth. *Lancet*. 2008;371(9606):75-84. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(08)60074-4
54. Steer P. The epidemiology of preterm labour. *BJOG An Int J Obstet Gynaecol*. 2005;112(SUPPL. 1):1-3. doi:10.1111/j.1471-0528.2005.00575.x
55. Krupa FG, Faltin D, Cecatti JG, Surita FGC, Souza JP. Predictors of preterm birth. *Int J Gynecol Obstet*. 2006;94(1):5-11. doi:10.1016/j.ijgo.2006.03.022
56. Gilbert WM, Nesbitt TS, Danielsen B. The cost of prematurity: Quantification by gestational age and birth weight. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2003;102(3):488-492. doi:10.1016/S0029-7844(03)00617-3
57. Russell RB, Green NS, Steiner CA, et al. Cost of Hospitalization for Preterm and Low Birth Weight Infants in the United States. *Pediatrics*. 2007;120(1):e1-e9. doi:10.1542/peds.2006-2386
58. Copper RL, Goldenberg RL, Davis RO, et al. Warning symptoms, uterine contractions,

- and cervical examination findings in women at risk of preterm delivery. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1990;162(3):748-754. doi:10.1016/0002-9378(90)91000-3
59. Defranco EA, Lewis DF, Odibo AO. Improving the screening accuracy for preterm labor: is the combination of fetal fibronectin and cervical length in symptomatic patients a useful predictor of preterm birth? A systematic review. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2013;208(3):233-e1. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2012.12.015
 60. Katz M, Goodyear K, Creasy RK. Early signs and symptoms of preterm labor. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1990;162(5):1150-1153. doi:10.1016/0002-9378(90)90004-Q
 61. Meis PJ, Goldenberg RL, Mercer BM, et al. The preterm prediction study: Risk factors for indicated preterm births. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 1998;178(3):562-567. doi:10.1016/S0002-9378(98)70439-9
 62. Tucker J, Mcguire W. Epidemiology of preterm birth. *Br Med J.* 2004;329:675-678. doi:10.1136/bmj.329.7467.675
 63. Allison CM, Hyde JS. Early Menarche: Confluence of Biological and Contextual Factors. *Sex Roles.* 2013;68(1-2):55-64. doi:10.1007/s11199-011-9993-5
 64. Boden JM, Fergusson DM, Horwood LJ. Age of Menarche and Psychosocial Outcomes in a New Zealand Birth Cohort. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry.* 2011;50(2):132-140. doi:10.1016/j.jaac.2010.11.007
 65. Romans S. , Martin JM, Gendall K, Herbison GP. Age of menarche: the role of some psychosocial factors. *Psychol Med.* 2003;33(5):933. doi:10.1017/S0033291703007530
 66. Ryu S, Chang Y, Choi Y, et al. Age at menarche and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *J Hepatol.* 2015;62(5):1164-117. doi:10.1016/j.jhep.2014.11.041
 67. Anderson SE, Must A. Interpreting the continued decline in the average age at menarche:

- Results from two nationally representative surveys of U.S. girls studied 10 years apart. *J Pediatr.* 2005;147(6):753-760. doi:10.1016/j.jpeds.2005.07.016
68. Kelsey JL, Gammon MD, John EM. Reproductive Factors and Breast Cancer. *Epidemiol Rev.* 1993;15(1):36-47. doi:10.1093/oxfordjournals.epirev.a036115
69. Key TJ, Verkasalo PK, Banks E. Epidemiology of breast cancer. *Lancet Oncol.* 2001;2(3):133-140. doi:10.1016/S1470-2045(00)00254-0
70. Canoy D, Beral V, Balkwill A, et al. Age at Menarche and Risks of Coronary Heart and Other Vascular Diseases in a Large UK Cohort. *Circulation.* 2015;131(3):237-244. doi:10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.114.010070
71. Elks CE, Ong KK, Scott RA, et al. Age at menarche and type 2 diabetes risk: the EPIC-InterAct study. *Diabetes Care.* 2013;36(11):3526-3534. doi:10.2337/dc13-0446
72. Varraso R, Siroux V, Maccario J, Pin I, Kauffmann F. Asthma Severity Is Associated with Body Mass Index and Early Menarche in Women. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med.* 2005;171(4):334-339. doi:10.1164/rccm.200405-674OC
73. Coall DA, Chisholm JS. Evolutionary perspectives on pregnancy: Maternal age at menarche and infant birth weight. *Soc Sci Med.* 2003;57(10):1771-1781. doi:10.1016/S0277-9536(03)00022-4
74. Martin EJ, Brinton LA, Hoover R. Menarcheal age and miscarriage. *Am J Epidemiol.* 1983;117(5):634-636.
75. Sandler DP, Wilcox AJ, Horney LF. Age at menarche and subsequent reproductive events. *Am J Epidemiol.* 1984;119(5):765-774.
76. Pierce MB, Leon DA. Age at menarche and adult BMI in the Aberdeen Children of the 1950s Cohort Study. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2005;84(2):733-739. doi:10.1093/ajcn/82.4.733

77. Copeland W, Shanahan L, Miller S, Costello EJ, Angold A, Maughan B. Outcomes of early pubertal timing in young women: A prospective population-based study. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2010;167(10):1218-1225. doi:10.1176/appi.ajp.2010.09081190
78. Ibitoye M, Choi C, Tai H, Lee G, Sommer M. Early menarche: A systematic review of its effect on sexual and reproductive health in low- and middle-income countries. *PLoS One*. 2017;12(6):e0178884. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0178884
79. Graber JA, Seeley JR, Brooks-Gunn J, Lewinsohn PM. Is pubertal timing associated with psychopathology in young adulthood? *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry*. 2004;43(6):718-726. doi:10.1097/01.chi.0000120022.14101.11
80. Graber JA. Pubertal timing and the development of psychopathology in adolescence and beyond. *Horm Behav*. 2013;64(2):262-269. doi:10.1016/j.yhbeh.2013.04.003
81. Apter D, Reinilä M, Vihko R. Some endocrine characteristics of early menarche, a risk factor for breast cancer, are preserved into adulthood. *Int J Cancer*. 1989;44(5):783-787. doi:10.1002/ijc.2910440506
82. Emaus A, Espetvedt S, Veierød MB, et al. 7-b-Estradiol in relation to age at menarche and adult obesity in premenopausal women. *Hum Reprod*. 2008;23(4):919-927. doi:10.1093/humrep/dem432
83. Mueller NT, Duncan BB, Barreto SM, et al. Earlier age at menarche is associated with higher diabetes risk and cardiometabolic disease risk factors in Brazilian adults: Brazilian Longitudinal Study of Adult Health (ELSA-Brasil). *Cardiovasc Diabetol*. 2014;13(1):1-8. doi:10.1186/1475-2840-13-22
84. Dreyfus J, Jacobs DR, Mueller N, et al. Age at Menarche and Cardiometabolic Risk in Adulthood: The Coronary Artery Risk Development in Young Adults Study. *J Pediatr*.

- 2015;167(2):344-352.e1. doi:10.1016/j.jpeds.2015.04.032
85. Lowe LP, Metzger BE, Dyer AR, et al. Hyperglycemia and Adverse Pregnancy Outcome (HAPO) Study Associations of maternal A1C and glucose with pregnancy outcomes. *Diabetes Care*. 2012;35(3):574-580. doi:10.2337/dc11-1687
 86. Mazor M, Hershkovitz R, Ghezzi F, et al. Maternal plasma and amniotic fluid 17 estradiol, progesterone and cortisol concentrations in women with successfully and unsuccessfully treated preterm labor. *Arch Gynecol Obs*. 1996;258:89-96.
 87. Mazor M, Hershkovitz R, Chaim W, et al. Human preterm birth is associated with systemic and local changes in progesterone/17 β -estradiol ratios. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 1994;171(1):231-236. doi:10.1016/0002-9378(94)90474-X
 88. Pitiphat W, Gillman MW, Joshipura KJ, Williams PL, Douglass CW, Rich-Edwards JW. Plasma C-reactive protein in early pregnancy and preterm delivery. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2005;162(11):1108-1113. doi:10.1093/aje/kwi323
 89. Williams TC, Drake AJ. Preterm birth in evolutionary context: a predictive adaptive response? *Philos Trans R Soc B Biol Sci*. 2019;374(1770):20180121. doi:10.1098/rstb.2018.0121
 90. Berkowitz GS. An Epidemiologic Study Of Preterm Delivery. *Am J Epidemiol*. 1981;113(1):81-92. Accessed April 22, 2020. <https://academic.oup.com/aje/article-abstract/113/1/81/51816>
 91. Hennessy E, Alberman E. Intergenerational influences affecting birth outcome. II. Preterm delivery and gestational age in the children of the 1958 British birth cohort. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol*. 1998;12(S1):61-75. doi:10.1046/j.1365-3016.1998.0120s1061.x
 92. Li H, Song L, Shen L, et al. Age at menarche and prevalence of preterm birth: Results

- from the Healthy Baby Cohort study. *Sci Rep.* 2017;7(1):1-7. doi:10.1038/s41598-017-12817-2
93. For Researchers – Ontario Birth Study. Accessed April 22, 2020. <http://ontariobirthstudy.com/researchers/>
 94. Harris PA, Taylor R, Thielke R, Payne J, Gonzalez N, Conde JG. Research electronic data capture (REDCap)-A metadata-driven methodology and workflow process for providing translational research informatics support. *J Biomed Inform.* 2009;42(2):377-381. doi:10.1016/j.jbi.2008.08.010
 95. Guidelines and JOGC. Accessed June 24, 2020. <https://sogc.org/en/guidelines-and-jogc/en/content/guidelines-jogc/guidelines-and-jogc.aspx?hkey=aa09f753-7812-462a-9d80-3e6b609f6ec6>
 96. Preterm Labor and Birth | ACOG. Accessed June 24, 2020. <https://www.acog.org/patient-resources/faqs/labor-delivery-and-postpartum-care/preterm-labor-and-birth>
 97. Huynh M, Parker JD, Harper S, Pamuk E, Schoendorf K. Contextual Effect of Income Inequality on Birth Outcomes - PubMed. *Int J Epidemiol.* 2005;34(4):888-895. doi:10.1093/ije/dyi092
 98. Kramer MS, Goulet L, Lydon J, et al. Socio-economic disparities in preterm birth: causal pathways and mechanisms. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol.* 2001;15(s2):104-123. doi:10.1046/j.1365-3016.2001.00012.x
 99. Luo ZC, Wilkins R, Kramer MS. Effect of neighbourhood income and maternal education on birth outcomes: A population-based study. *CMAJ.* 2006;174(10):1415-1420. doi:10.1503/cmaj.051096
 100. Wallace ME, Mendola P, Chen Z, Hwang BS, Grantz KL. Preterm Birth in the Context of

- Increasing Income Inequality. *Matern Child Health J.* 2016;20(1):164-171.
doi:10.1007/s10995-015-1816-9
101. Luo ZC, Kierans WJ, Wilkins R, Liston RM, Mohamed J, Kramer MS. Disparities in birth outcomes by neighborhood income: Temporal trends in rural and urban areas, British Columbia. *Epidemiology.* 2004;15(6):679-686. doi:10.1097/01.ede.0000142149.34095.88
 102. Snelgrove JW, Murphy KE. Preterm birth and social inequality: assessing the effects of material and psychosocial disadvantage in a UK birth cohort. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand.* 2015;94(7):766-775. doi:10.1111/aogs.12648
 103. Wong AE, Grobman WA. Medically indicated-iatrogenic prematurity. *Clin Perinatol.* 2011;38(3):423-439. doi:10.1016/j.clp.2011.06.002
 104. Roberts JM, Redman CWG. Pre-eclampsia: more than pregnancy-induced hypertension. *Lancet.* 1993;341(8858):1447-1451. doi:10.1016/0140-6736(93)90889-O
 105. Xiong X, Demianczuk NN, Saunders LD, Wang F-L, Fraser WD. Impact of Preeclampsia and Gestational Hypertension on Birth Weight by Gestational Age. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2002;155(2):203-209. doi:10.1093/aje/155.3.203
 106. Backes CH, Markham K, Moorehead P, Cordero L, Nankervis CA, Giannone PJ. Maternal Preeclampsia and Neonatal Outcomes. *J Pregnancy.* 2011;2011. doi:10.1155/2011/214365
 107. Barton JR, Barton LA, Istwan NB, et al. Elective delivery at 340/7 to 366/7 weeks' gestation and its impact on neonatal outcomes in women with stable mild gestational hypertension. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2011;204(1):44.e1-44.e5. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2010.08.030
 108. Kurkinen-Raty M, Koivisto M, Jouppila P. Preterm delivery for maternal or fetal

- indications: maternal morbidity, neonatal outcome and late sequelae in infants. *BJOG An Int J Obstet Gynaecol.* 2000;107(5):648-655. doi:10.1111/j.1471-0528.2000.tb13308.x
109. Behrman RE, Butler AS. *Preterm Birth: Causes, Consequences, and Prevention.* National Academies Press; 2007. doi:10.17226/11622
110. Blumenshine P, Egerter S, Barclay CJ, Cubbin C, Braveman PA. Socioeconomic Disparities in Adverse Birth Outcomes A Systematic Review. *Am J Prev Med.* 2010;39(3):263-272. doi:10.1016/j.amepre.2010.05.012
111. Gibbs CM, Wendt A, Peters S, Hogue CJ. The Impact of Early Age at First Childbirth on Maternal and Infant Health. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol.* 2012;26(SUPPL. 1):259-284. doi:10.1111/j.1365-3016.2012.01290.x
112. Craig ED, Thompson JMD, Mitchell EA. Socioeconomic status and preterm birth: New Zealand trends, 1980 to 1999. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed.* 2002;86(3). doi:10.1136/fn.86.3.f142
113. Abreu AP, Kaiser UB. Pubertal development and regulation. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol.* 2016;4(3):254-264. doi:10.1016/S2213-8587(15)00418-0
114. Wadhwa PD, Garite TJ, Porto M, et al. Placental corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH), spontaneous preterm birth, and fetal growth restriction: A prospective investigation. *Am J Obstet Gynecol.* 2004;191(4):1063-1069. doi:10.1016/j.ajog.2004.06.070
115. Handa RJ, Weiser MJ. Gonadal steroid hormones and the hypothalamo-pituitary-adrenal axis. *Front Neuroendocrinol.* 2014;35(2):197-220. doi:10.1016/j.yfrne.2013.11.001
116. Marques P, Skorupskaite K, George JT, Anderson RA. *Physiology of GNRH and Gonadotropin Secretion.* MDText.com, Inc.; 2018.
117. Chang K, Zhang L. Review article: Steroid hormones and uterine vascular adaptation to

- pregnancy. *Reprod Sci.* 2008;15(4):336-348. doi:10.1177/1933719108317975
118. Gong TT, Wang YL, Ma XX. Age at menarche and endometrial cancer risk: A dose-response meta-analysis of prospective studies. *Sci Rep.* 2015;5:14051. doi:10.1038/srep14051
119. Vihko R, Apter D. Endocrine characteristics of adolescent menstrual cycles: Impact of early menarche. *J Steroid Biochem.* 1984;20(1):231-236. doi:10.1016/0022-4731(84)90209-7
120. Smith GCS, Cordeaux Y, White IR, et al. The Effect of Delaying Childbirth on Primary Cesarean Section Rates. Fisk N, ed. *PLoS Med.* 2008;5(7):e144. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.0050144
121. Cole-Lewis HJ, Kershaw TS, Earnshaw VA, Yonkers KA, Lin H, Ickovics JR. Pregnancy-specific stress, preterm birth, and gestational age among high-risk young women. *Heal Psychol.* 2014;33(9):1033-1045. doi:10.1037/a0034586
122. Boynton-Jarrett R, Wright RJ, Putnam FW, et al. Childhood abuse and age at menarche. *J Adolesc Heal.* 2013;52(2):241-247. doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2012.06.006
123. Dearnorff J, Ekwaru JP, Kushi LH, et al. Father absence, body mass index, and pubertal timing in girls: Differential effects by family income and ethnicity. *J Adolesc Heal.* 2011;48(5):441-447. doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2010.07.032
124. Ruiz RJ, Fullerton J, Dudley DJ. The Interrelationship of Maternal Stress, Endocrine Factors and Inflammation On Gestational Length. *Obstet Gynecol Surv.* 2003;58(6):415-428. doi:10.1097/01.OGX.0000071160.26072.DE
125. Kuras YI, McInnis CM, Thoma M V., et al. Increased alpha-amylase response to an acute psychosocial stress challenge in healthy adults with childhood adversity. *Dev Psychobiol.*

- 2017;59(1):91-98. doi:10.1002/dev.21470
126. Shonkoff JP, Garner AS, Siegel BS, et al. The Lifelong Effects of Early Childhood Adversity and Toxic Stress. *Pediatrics*. 2012;129(1):e232-e246. doi:10.1542/peds.2011-2663
127. Theall KP, Brett ZH, Shirtcliff EA, Dunn EC, Drury SS. Neighborhood disorder and telomeres: Connecting children's exposure to community level stress and cellular response. *Soc Sci Med*. 2013;85:50-58. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2013.02.030
128. Harrison MS, Eckert LO, Cutland C, et al. Pathways to preterm birth: Case definition and guidelines for data collection, analysis, and presentation of immunization safety data. *Vaccine*. 2016;34(49):6093-6101. doi:10.1016/j.vaccine.2016.03.054
129. Abetew DF, Enquobahrie DA, Dishu M, Rudra CB, Miller RS, Williams MA. Age at Menarche, Menstrual Characteristics, and Risk of Preeclampsia. *ISRN Obstet Gynecol*. 2011;2011. doi:10.5402/2011/472083

APPENDIX

Table A1: Comparing participants with missing and non-missing values in the lifestyle questionnaires in the Ontario Birth Study

	Missing Analysis		Not Missing		P-Value ¹
	N	%	N	%	
Early Menarche					
No	391	43.3	1172	56.7	0.69
Yes	81	9	241	17.1	
Maternal Factors					
Age					
18-29	58	6.4	159	11.3	0.18
30-34	260	28.8	727	51.5	
35-39	139	15.4	430	30.4	
40+	46	5.1	96	6.8	
Ethnicity					
White	331	36.6	992	70.2	0.45
Other ¹	47	5.2	123	8.7	
East, South, South East Asian	112	12.4	263	18.6	
Black	15	1.7	33	2.3	
Marital Status					
Cohabiting/Married	485	53.7	1383	97.9	0.01
Single	20	2.2	26	1.8	
Education					
Graduate degree	218	24.1	574	40.6	0.45
Bachelors	201	22.2	621	43.9	
Post-secondary Trade, Diploma, Certificate	65	7.2	167	11.8	
Secondary or less	16	1.8	41	2.9	
Current Employment					
Employed	452	50	1276	90.3	0.85
Not Employed	46	5.1	129	9.1	
Household Income					
> 150,000	252	27.9	724	51.2	0.36

100,000 – 149,999	104	11.5	337	23.8	
50,000–99,999	75	8.3	212	15	
<50,000	31	3.4	60	4.2	
Health Factors					
Pre-pregnancy BMI					
Normal	246	27.2	940	66.4	0.01
Underweight	13	1.4	67	4.7	
Overweight	59	6.5	233	16.5	
Obese	50	5.5	94	6.6	
Pre-existing Diabetes²					
No	496	54.9	1379	97.6	0.78
Yes	7	0.8	19	1.3	
Gestational Diabetes					
No	848	93.8	1335	94.5	0.21
Yes	56	6.2	78	5.5	
Hypertensive Disorders					
No	871	96.3	1348	95.4	0.25
Yes	33	3.7	65	4.6	
Infection During Pregnancy³					
No	866	95.8	939	66.5	0.00
Yes	38	4.2	474	33.5	
Emotional Health					
No Emotional Concern	94	10.4	1307	92.5	0.71
Emotional Instability	6	0.7	70	5	
Alcohol Use During Pregnancy					
No	88	9.7	1118	79.1	0.34
Yes	18	2	290	20.5	
Clinical Pregnancy Factors					

IVF/IUI Pregnancy					
No	846	93.6	1263	89.4	0.00
Yes	55	6.1	147	10.4	
Parity					
Primiparous	129	14.3	1093	77.4	0.67
Multiparous	369	40.8	306	21.7	
Previous Pregnancy Loss					
No	338	37.4	953	67.5	0.82
Miscarriage	89	9.8	260	18.4	
Termination of Pregnancy	71	7.9	186	13.2	
Fetal Complication⁴					
No	522	57.7	1268	89.7	0.00
Yes	100	11.1	145	10.3	
Placental Complication⁵					
No	590	65.3	1365	96.4	0.14
Yes	32	3.5	51	3.6	

¹Includes those that identified as one or more of the following: Indigenous (First Nations, Metis or Inuit), Arab, Latin American/Hispanic, or Other

²Pre-existing diabetes includes Type 1 and Type 2 diabetes, diagnosed by a healthcare provide prior to pregnancy

³Includes one or more of the following prior to delivery: flu, pneumonia, diarrhea, sinusitis, ear infection, cold sore, mouth infection, or other infection/inflammatory condition during pregnancy

⁴Fetal complications includes one or more of the following prior to delivery: fetal anomaly, isoimmunization/alloimmunization, intrauterine growth restriction, large for GA, oligohydramnios, or polyhydramnios

⁵Placental complications includes having one or more of the following prior to delivery: placental abruption, placenta accrete, increta, percreta, and previa