

1 **Current use of combined hormonal contraception is associated with glucose**
2 **metabolism disorders in perimenopausal women**

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25 **Abstract**

26 **Objective**

27 The use of combined hormonal contraceptives (CHCs) worsens glucose tolerance, but the risk for
28 glucose metabolism disorders remains controversial.

29 **Design**

30 The study is a prospective longitudinal population-based cohort study.

31 **Methods**

32 The study was based on a cohort population that comprised 1879 women born in 1966. At age 46, the
33 women answered a questionnaire on contraceptive use and underwent an oral glucose tolerance test.
34 Glucose metabolism indices were evaluated in current CHC (n=153), progestin-only contraceptive
35 (POC, n=842), and non-hormonal contraceptive users (n=884).

36 **Results**

37 In the entire study population, current CHC use was significantly associated with prediabetes (OR 2.0,
38 95% CI 1.3-3.2) and type 2 diabetes (OR 3.3, 95% CI 1.1-9.7) compared to non-hormonal
39 contraceptive use. After five years of use, the prediabetes risk increased 2.2-fold (95% CI 1.3-3.7) and
40 type 2 diabetes risk increased 4.5-fold (95% CI 1.5-13.5). Compared with the current POC use, current
41 CHC use was significantly associated with prediabetes (OR 1.9, 95% CI 1.2-3.0). Current POC use
42 was not associated with any glucose metabolism disorders. The results prevailed after adjusting for
43 body mass index and socioeconomic status.

44 **Conclusions**

45 CHC use in perimenopausal women was associated with a significantly increased risk of glucose
46 metabolism disorders. This association should be considered in women with increased metabolic risk.

47

48

49 **Introduction**

50 Early-generation combined hormonal contraceptives (CHCs) have been shown to negatively impact
51 glucose metabolism, which results in impaired fasting glucose and glucose intolerance (1,2,3). In the
52 past, these preparations contained relatively high doses of ethinyl estradiol (EE; 50-150 µg) and
53 androgenic progestins (4), whereas modern preparations consist of low-dose EE (20-30 µg) and less
54 androgenic or even antiandrogenic progestins (5).

55 One of our previous studies in young, normal-weight women demonstrated that continuous use
56 of CHCs for nine weeks, regardless of administration route, worsened glucose tolerance and induced
57 chronic inflammation (6). These results are consistent with those of most other studies (7-9) but not all
58 (10). A Cochrane review indicated that CHC use had only a limited effect on glucose metabolism in
59 healthy, normal-weight women (11). However, oral glucose tolerance tests (OGTTs) were not
60 performed in all studies, and only a few of them considered body mass index (BMI). Progestin-only
61 contraceptives (POCs) have been less studied, but they have been associated with minimal (12-16) or
62 no alterations (8,17,18) in glucose metabolism depending on the preparation.

63 Studies on associations between the risk of type 2 diabetes (T2DM) and CHC use demonstrate
64 conflicting results and are difficult to compare due to differences in study designs, study populations,
65 and hormonal contraceptives (11). However, a moderately elevated risk of diabetes has been observed
66 among premenopausal Chinese women using CHCs (19), and a large prospective population-based
67 Swedish study demonstrated a significantly increased risk of prediabetes (preDM) in current CHC
68 users over 36 years of age (20). The use of CHCs is often long-term, and CHCs are increasingly being
69 prescribed for older women (21,22), as their use has been considered to be safe up to menopause in
70 non-smoking, healthy women with no known risk factors of cardiovascular disease. Thus, currently
71 available data suggest that CHC use increases the risk of diabetes, but whether these risks translate to
72 overt disease remains unclear.

73 In the present study, we investigated the effects of CHCs, POCs, and non-hormonal
74 contraceptives on the occurrence of preDM and T2DM in perimenopausal women in a prospective,
75 national population-based follow-up cohort.

76

77 **Subjects and Methods**

78 **Study Population**

79 The study population was derived from the unique, prospective, population-based Northern Finland
80 Birth Cohort 1966 (NFBC1966, <http://www.oulu.fi/nfbc>), which includes all expected births in 1966
81 in the two northernmost provinces of Finland (n=12 058). Of these, 5889 were female. Enrolment in
82 the database began at the 24th gestational week, and thus far, data has been collected at age 1, 14, 31,
83 and 46 years.

84 From 2012-2014, a large questionnaire on main health issues and an invitation to a clinical
85 examination was sent to 5123 women of the cohort who were 46 years old. A total of 3708 (72.4%)
86 women responded to the questionnaire, and 3280 of these women (88.5%) also participated in the
87 clinical examination, which included anthropometric measurements and blood samples. After
88 exclusion of participants as described below, all women who answered the questionnaire on current
89 use of hormonal and non-hormonal contraceptives and underwent OGTTs (n=1879) were included in
90 the analyses (Fig. 1). All participants provided informed consent, and the study was approved by the
91 Ethics Committee of the Northern Ostrobothnia District (EETTMK 94/2011).

92

93 **Current hormonal and non-hormonal contraception (Fig. 1)**

94 Women who attended clinical examinations and reported current use of hormonal or non-hormonal
95 contraceptives were divided into three groups: 1) current CHC (including combined oral contraceptive,
96 vaginal ring, and transdermal patch) users (n=153), 2) current POC (including progestin-only pill,

97 hormone-releasing intrauterine device, and subdermal capsule) users (n=842), and 3) current users of
98 non-hormonal contraceptives (n=884) as a reference group, which included all women reporting
99 current use of non-hormonal contraceptives (condom, non-hormonal intrauterine device, or their own
100 or their partner's sterilization). Women who reported non-use of any form of contraception (hormonal
101 or non-hormonal) were excluded from the analyses (n=1011), as this group included more multiparous
102 women, who have a higher risk of metabolic disease as a result of multiple pregnancies and deliveries
103 (23,24). Moreover, women using non-identified hormonal preparations (n=8) or hormonal replacement
104 therapy (n=66) and women with formerly diagnosed T2DM (n=68) were excluded from the analysis.
105 The questionnaire also included a question regarding the length of use of the current form of
106 contraception. A total of 143 (94%) CHC users, 796 (98%) POC users, and 512 (58%) non-hormonal
107 contraceptive users reported the length of use. The data were analyzed for less than five years and five
108 or greater years of use.

109

110 **Anthropometric parameters**

111 All women who participated in the clinical examination were weighed (kg) using a regularly calibrated
112 digital scale. Height (cm) was measured twice using a standard and calibrated stadiometer. Body mass
113 index (BMI) was calculated (kg/m^2) using measured height and weight. Waist circumference was
114 measured at the level midway between the lowest rib margin and the iliac crest.

115

116 **Laboratory methods**

117 Plasma glucose levels were analyzed with an enzymatic dehydrogenase method, and serum insulin
118 levels were analyzed with a chemiluminometric immunoassay (Advia 1800 and Advia Centaur XP,
119 respectively, Siemens Healthcare Diagnostics, Tarrytown, NY, USA). The samples were analyzed in
120 NordLab Oulu, a testing laboratory (T113) accredited by the Finnish Accreditation Service (FINAS)
121 (EN ISO 15189).

122 **Assessment of glucose metabolism disorders**

123 A 2-h 75-g OGTT was performed in all 1879 women after an overnight (12-h) fasting period. The
124 exclusion criteria for the OGTT were medication for diabetes or a measured capillary blood glucose
125 level of >8.0 mmol/l. Both serum insulin and plasma glucose levels were measured at baseline and at
126 30, 60, and 120 min after glucose intake. Glucose tolerance status was classified according to World
127 Health Organization criteria: 1) normal glucose tolerance (NGT) was defined as having a fasting
128 plasma glucose (FPG) level <6.1 mmol/l and a 2-h glucose level <7.8 mmol/l, 2) impaired glucose
129 tolerance (IGT) was defined as having an FPG level <7.0 mmol/l and a 2-h glucose level of 7.8-11.0
130 mmol/l, 3) impaired fasting glucose (IFG) was defined as having an FPG level 6.1-6.9 mmol/l and a
131 2-h glucose level <7.8 mmol/l, and 4) new T2DM was defined as having an FPG level ≥ 7.0 mmol/l or
132 a 2-h glucose level ≥ 11.1 mmol/l. Formerly diagnosed cases of T2DM were identified via responses
133 to postal questionnaires (self-reported diagnoses and use of T2DM medication), and the diagnoses
134 were further confirmed from hospital discharge documents and national drug registers of the Social
135 Insurance Institution of Finland. The presence of IFG or IGT was classified as preDM. Women with
136 type 1 diabetes (n=151) or an undefined diabetes type (n=76) were excluded from the analyses.

137 Fasting glucose and insulin values were used to calculate fasting indexes: homeostasis model
138 assessment of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) index (fasting plasma glucose (FPG) \times fasting serum
139 insulin (FSI) / 22.5) and the homeostasis model assessment of beta-cell function (HOMA2- β) index
140 $((20 \times \text{FSI}) / (\text{FPG} - 3.5) \times 100)$. Glucose and insulin values in OGTTs were used to calculate insulin
141 and glucose areas under the curve (insulin-AUC and glucose-AUC, respectively) and the Matsuda
142 Index for insulin sensitivity (ISI) $(10,000 \times ((\text{FPG} \times \text{FSI}) \times ((\text{FPG} + 30 \text{ min PG} + 60 \text{ min PG} + 120$
143 $\text{min PG}) / 4) \times ((\text{FSI} + 30 \text{ min SI} + 60 \text{ min SI} + 120 \text{ min SI}) / 4))$ (Matsuda 1999).

144

145

146 **Statistical methods**

147 The differences between study groups were compared with independent Student *t*-tests for normally
148 distributed variables. Variables with a skewed distribution were log-transformed to obtain a normal
149 distribution. The Bonferroni correction was used because there were multiple *t*-tests. Binary logistic
150 regression modelling was used to investigate whether current use of the different hormonal
151 contraceptives (i.e., CHCs and POCs) was associated with preDM or T2DM by age 46. The factors
152 significantly associated with hormonal contraception use at age 46 were included in multivariate binary
153 logistic regression models. The results of the regression analyses are reported as odds ratios (ORs)
154 with 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs). All analyses are reported as crude ORs and ORs adjusted
155 for factors associated with the use of contraceptives and metabolic outcomes (i.e., socioeconomic
156 status (SES), consumption of alcohol, smoking, parity, BMI, and use of cholesterol-lowering
157 medication). IBM SPSS Statistics software (IBM Corporation, 1989, 2013) version 22.0 for Windows
158 was used for all statistical analyses. The level of statistical significance was set at $p \leq 0.05$.

159

160 **Results**

161 Waist circumferences and BMIs did not differ between CHC, non-hormonal contraceptive, and POC
162 users. CHC users had fewer deliveries than non-hormonal contraceptive users ($p < 0.001$) and POC
163 users ($p < 0.001$). POC users had fewer deliveries than non-hormonal contraceptive users ($p = 0.01$)
164 (Table 1).

165

166 **Prevalence of glucose metabolism disorders**

167 Current CHC use was significantly associated with preDM (crude OR 2.0, 95% CI 1.3-3.2) and T2DM
168 (crude OR 3.3, 95% CI 1.1-9.7) compared with non-hormonal contraceptive use. The use of CHCs for
169 less than five years was not associated with disordered glucose metabolism compared with the use of
170 non-hormonal contraceptives for less than five years. However, the use of CHCs for five years or more

171 was associated with an increased risk of preDM when compared with the use of non-hormonal
172 contraceptives for over five years (preDM 20.7% vs. 12.3%, crude OR 2.2, 95% CI 1.3-3.7).
173 Furthermore, the use of CHCs for five years or more was associated with an increased risk of T2DM
174 compared with the use of non-hormonal contraceptives (T2DM 4.5% vs. 0.7%, crude OR 4.5, 95% CI
175 1.5-13.5) (Table 2).

176 A total of 2 (1.3%) CHC users, 16 (2.2%) POC users, and 24 (2.7%) non-hormonal contraceptive
177 users were currently using statins at age 46. As statins may alter glucose metabolism, we performed
178 sub-analyses that excluded statin users, and the risk of preDM or T2DM did not change in any of the
179 groups studied. As for other risk factors for abnormal glucose tolerance, previous gestational diabetes
180 mellitus (GDM) was diagnosed at a similar rate in all study groups: in 9 (5.9%) CHC users, in 71
181 (8.4%) POC users, and in 69 (7.8%) non-hormonal contraceptive users. Moreover, the family history
182 of T2DM (grandparents, parents, siblings and children) was asked as a part of questionnaire in the
183 clinical examinations. In all study groups, 94-96% answered this question. The family history of T2DM
184 was present in 32% of the CHC users being lower ($p=0.001$) than in POC (46%) and in non-hormonal
185 contraceptive (48%) users.

186 In a subgroup analysis, we also investigated a separate group of women who reported CHC use
187 both at age 31 and at age 46 ($n=91$). The analysis revealed that these women had a two-fold increased
188 risk for preDM (crude OR 2.0, 95% CI 1.0-3.7) but not a significant risk for T2DM compared with
189 non-hormonal contraceptive use at age 46.

190 In the entire study population, CHC use was significantly associated with preDM (crude OR 1.9,
191 95% CI 1.2-3.0, adjusted OR 1.8, 95% CI 1.1-3.1) and T2DM (crude OR 2.4, 95% CI 0.8-6.7, adjusted
192 OR 4.1, 95% CI 1.3-13.2) compared with POC use. The use of POCs was not associated with preDM
193 or T2DM when compared with the use of non-hormonal contraceptives (data not shown).

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196 **Glucose metabolism according to OGTTs**

197 CHC users had higher glucose AUC values ($p=0.01$) in OGTT than non-hormonal contraceptive users.
198 CHC users had higher glucose-AUC values ($p=0.001$) and lower Matsuda Index values ($p=0.006$) than
199 POC users. The results remained similar after adjustments for BMI and waist circumference (Table 1).

200

201 **Discussion**

202 This population-based study shows that current use of CHCs at age 46 was associated with an increased
203 risk for glucose metabolism disorders measured by OGTT. The sub-analysis revealed that the use of
204 CHCs for five years or more increased the risk for preDM and T2DM. The current use of POCs was
205 not associated with an increased risk for preDM or T2DM. Although overweight and obesity are known
206 risk factors for glucose metabolism disorders, they did not explain our observations. Also, the
207 previously diagnosed GDM or family history of T2DM did not explain the differences between the
208 study groups.

209 The present results are consistent with our previous findings in the same cohort population,
210 which showed decreased insulin sensitivity and higher levels of insulin at age 31 in women using
211 CHCs despite lower BMIs in this group (8). The present study shows that some of the current CHC
212 users developed preDM. This observation is in line with the results of a recent Swedish prospective
213 population-based study that included 4794 women aged 36-56 and showed that current CHC use was
214 associated with a four-fold risk of preDM and a seven-fold risk of IGT (20). In addition, a case-control
215 study conducted among Chinese women over 40 years of age demonstrated a 2.1-fold overall risk of
216 T2DM in current premenopausal CHC users, and the risk became significant as early as one year after
217 use (19).

218 In the present study, a current CHC use duration of five years or more was associated with an
219 increased risk of T2DM compared with non-hormonal contraception use of the same duration, although
220 the clinical value of this finding must be treated with caution due to the low number of diagnosed

221 T2DM cases. CHC use of less than five years was not associated with any glucose metabolism
222 disorders. The role of the duration of CHC use remains controversial, as some studies have shown no
223 significant correlation between duration and glucose metabolism disorders (25,26), whereas others
224 have suggested a tendency towards an increased risk of diabetes with longer CHC use (19). Variation
225 in study design, hormonal contraceptive preparation, BMI, and ethnicity and inadequate sample sizes
226 in some studies may explain the differences between studies (11). In the present study, the 91 women
227 who reported CHC use at the ages of both 31 and 46 years showed a two-fold increased risk of preDM
228 but not T2DM compared with those who reported non-hormonal contraceptive use at age 46. This
229 finding may be related to the relatively few women using CHCs at both time points, and follow-up of
230 this particular group of women should reveal whether or not these metabolic findings persist and
231 whether the risk of T2DM actually increases compared with that in women using non-hormonal
232 contraceptives or POC. However, the expert panel of the American Diabetes Association (ADA)
233 announced that eventually up to 70% of people with preDM will develop type 2 diabetes (27). In
234 addition, Diabetes Prevention Program (DPP) revealed annualized incidence rate of type 2 diabetes
235 11% among patients with preDM (28).

236 Current CHC users exhibited higher glucose-AUCs and lower Matsuda Index values (i.e., they
237 displayed decreased glucose tolerance and insulin sensitivity with compensatory insulin secretion)
238 compared with current POC or non-hormonal contraceptive users. Similarly, earlier studies have
239 shown higher 2-h glucose and fasting insulin levels in CHC users of childbearing age (7,9). Our results
240 fit well with the findings of our previous Finnish randomized, open-label study, which revealed
241 worsened insulin sensitivity during CHC use among healthy, normal-weight women under 33 years of
242 age (6). Similarly, the results of an Italian study showed decreased insulin sensitivity in 30 healthy,
243 lean CHC users (9). The aforementioned and present findings suggest that many CHC users have
244 decreased glucose tolerance, which results in compensatory increased insulin secretion.

245 CHCs may affect glucose metabolisms by several mechanisms. Reduced glucose tolerance has
246 been linked to hormonal contraceptives containing high-dose EE and androgenic progestins (5). Earlier
247 studies suggest that preparations containing natural estradiol could have a milder effect on glucose
248 tolerance than those containing EE (29-31). Although estrogen is thought to have an independent role,
249 progestin component may also modify the action of estrogen for instance by altering insulin response
250 to glucose (32, 33). In this study the composition of different CHC preparations was not available, and
251 therefore, we could not compare the risk of glucose metabolism alterations between different CHC
252 generations, progestins or difference between EE and estradiol. Previous studies, however, have
253 suggested that newer progestins, such as drospirenone and dienogest, may have less effects on glucose
254 metabolism (29, 34).

255 In the present study, current POC use was not associated with preDM and/or T2DM compared
256 with non-hormonal contraceptive use. This observation supports the results of earlier studies that
257 showed that POCs have no effect (18) or only mild and clinically non-significant effects on insulin
258 sensitivity (12,13,15). All these studies suggest that POCs have minimal influence on glucose
259 metabolism and may be safer contraceptives than CHCs in regard to T2DM risk. Most studies on the
260 associations between hormonal contraception and alterations of glucose metabolism have mainly
261 involved young, healthy, and non-obese women. Therefore, as overweight status is becoming more
262 common worldwide, more attention should directed toward middle-aged women who start to display
263 unfavorable alterations in body weight, blood pressure, lipid profiles, and glucose metabolism, which
264 together with physical inactivity contribute to an increased risk and incidence of cardiovascular
265 diseases (28,35,36). The present results suggest that POCs should be preferred to CHCs as
266 contraception for women with increased metabolic risk factors.

267

268

269 **Strengths and limitations**

270 The greatest strength of this study resides in the characteristics of the study population; the NFBC1966
271 data set provided a unique opportunity to investigate the association between the use of hormonal
272 contraceptives and glucose metabolism disorders in a large non-selected population of perimenopausal
273 women. In addition, the long-term follow-up of the same population allowed us to compare
274 observations at the ages of 31 and 46. Our results are based on OGTTs, which were performed in all
275 our study participants. We were also able to include several confounding factors in the analysis. There
276 are also limitations, including the fact that data on the current use of hormonal and non-hormonal
277 contraceptives was based on self-reporting. However, the responses were confirmed by another
278 questionnaire during the clinical examinations.

279 Ninety-four percent of CHC and 98% of PCO users reported the length of use of hormonal
280 preparations whereas only 58% of non-hormonal contraceptive users reported the length of use of non-
281 hormonal contraception. A previous use of CHC among non-hormonal contraception users could have
282 biased our results, as a Swedish study found association between both current and previous use of CHC
283 and prediabetes. The risk was four times higher in current and two times higher in former users at the
284 beginning of the study when compared to women who had never used CHC. During the 8 years'
285 follow-up, however, previous CHC use did not confer increased risk for abnormal glucose tolerance,
286 and the conclusion was that the possible association between CHC use and abnormal glucose
287 metabolism is transient (20). Likewise, a Chinese study reported that the risk of T2DM decreased after
288 cessation of CHC use in a time-dependent manner (19). Last, the Nurses Health Study found a
289 marginally increased risk of T2DM in previous CHC users (RR 1.10, 95%CI 1.01-1.21), who had
290 stopped the use at least 5 years earlier, compared with women who had never used CHC (37). Given
291 all this and the fact that in the present study 83% of non-hormonal contraception users had not used
292 any hormonal contraception for the last 5 years minimum, the possibility of CHC affecting glucose
293 tolerance in the non-hormonal contraception users is unlike.

294 Lastly, women with pre-existing risk factors for impaired glucose metabolism were probably less likely
295 to use CHCs at a perimenopausal age, and therefore, the use of CHCs may be associated with an even
296 greater risk of glucose metabolism disorders in an unselected user population.

297 The present findings suggest an increased risk for impaired glucose metabolism in current CHC users
298 of perimenopausal age. This finding raises the question whether it is more appropriate to recommend
299 POCs or non-hormonal contraceptives over CHCs to perimenopausal women with known metabolic
300 risks.

301

302 **Declaration of interest**

303 T.P. has received advisory board and lecturing honorarium from Exeltis, Merck, Ferring, and MSD.

304 T.P. also participated in the E4 FREEDOM trial ([NCT02817841](#)) with PRA Health Sciences. These
305 affiliations do not conflict with the present research. The remaining authors have nothing to disclose.

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309

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407 **Figure Legends**

408 Figure 1. Flow chart of current use of hormonal and nonhormonal contraceptives

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