

GYNECOLOGY

Age and fecundability in a North American preconception cohort study

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BACKGROUND: There is a well-documented decline in fertility treatment success with increasing female age; however, there are few preconception cohort studies that have examined female age and natural fertility. In addition, data on male age and fertility are inconsistent. Given the increasing number of couples who are attempting conception at older ages, a more detailed characterization of age-related fecundability in the general population is of great clinical utility.

OBJECTIVE: The purpose of this study was to examine the association between female and male age with fecundability.

STUDY DESIGN: We conducted a web-based preconception cohort study of pregnancy planners from the United States and Canada. Participants were enrolled between June 2013 and July 2017. Eligible participants were 21–45 years old (female) or ≥ 21 years old (male) and had not been using fertility treatments. Couples were followed until pregnancy or for up to 12 menstrual cycles. We analyzed data from 2962 couples who had been trying to conceive for ≤ 3 cycles at study entry and reported no history of infertility. We used life-table methods to estimate the unadjusted cumulative pregnancy proportion at 6 and 12 cycles by female and male age. We used proportional probabilities regression models to estimate fecundability ratios, the per-cycle probability of conception for each age category relative to the referent (21–24 years old), and 95% confidence intervals.

RESULTS: Among female patients, the unadjusted cumulative pregnancy proportion at 6 cycles of attempt time ranged from 62.0% (age, 28–30 years) to 27.6% (age, 40–45 years); the cumulative pregnancy

proportion at 12 cycles of attempt time ranged from 79.3% (age, 25–27 years old) to 55.5% (age, 40–45 years old). Similar patterns were observed among male patients, although differences between age groups were smaller. After adjusting for potential confounders, we observed a nearly monotonic decline in fecundability with increasing female age, with the exception of 28–33 years, at which point fecundability was relatively stable. Fecundability ratios were 0.91 (95% confidence interval, 0.74–1.11) for ages 25–27, 0.88 (95% confidence interval, 0.72–1.08) for ages 28–30, 0.87 (95% confidence interval, 0.70–1.08) for ages 31–33, 0.82 (95% confidence interval, 0.64–1.05) for ages 34–36, 0.60 (95% confidence interval, 0.44–0.81) for ages 37–39, and 0.40 (95% confidence interval, 0.22–0.73) for ages 40–45, compared with the reference group (age, 21–24 years). The association was stronger among nulligravid women. Male age was not associated appreciably with fecundability after adjustment for female age, although the number of men > 45 years old was small ($n=37$).

CONCLUSION: In this preconception cohort study of North American pregnancy planners, increasing female age was associated with an approximately linear decline in fecundability. Although we found little association between male age and fecundability, the small number of men in our study > 45 years old limited our ability to draw conclusions on fecundability in older men.

Key words: age, fecundability, fertility, preconception cohort

Over the last several decades, couples in Western societies have been postponing conception gradually until older ages.¹ There are several hypothesized reasons for delayed childbearing² that include increased access to effective contraception,³ higher female educational attainment,^{4–6} increased female participation in the workforce,⁷ cultural shifts that concern the ideal number of children,⁸ improved gender equity,^{9–12} economic uncertainty,^{13,14} and the absence of family-friendly workplace

policies.^{15,16} Given the increasing number of couples who are attempting conception at older ages, a more detailed characterization of age-related fecundability in the general population is of great clinical utility.

There is a well-documented decline in fertility treatment success with increasing female age.^{17,18} In addition, data from noncontracepting natural fertility populations have shown that marital fertility rates decline with increasing female age, with peak fecundability in the early to mid-twenties and a steady decline at older ages; in some populations, a more rapid decline was observed after age 30 years.^{19–21}

Studies that examine the association between age and fecundability in infertile populations or populations of pregnant women are subject to selection bias²² and

misclassification.²³ Though limited in number, preconception cohort studies of women from the general population avoid these biases and support the hypothesis that a woman's fecundability begins to decline during her early thirties. In a Danish preconception cohort study, fecundability peaked at approximately age 30 years and then declined steadily at older ages. The age-related decline in fecundability was stronger among nulliparous women.²⁴ In a preconception cohort study of women in the United States who were 30–44 years old, fecundability began to decline at approximately age 34 years; this association was more marked among women who had never conceived.²⁵

Studies also indicate that increasing male age, independent of female age, is associated with reduced fertility. Meta-analyses have shown age-related declines in semen quality that includes volume,

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111 motility, morphology, and DNA integ- 112 rity.^{26,27} However, prospective cohort 113 studies that have examined male age and 114 natural fertility^{24,28} and success of assis- 115 ted reproductive technologies²⁹⁻³² report 116 conflicting results. In particular, in a 117 preconception cohort from 7 European 118 cities, among couples in which the fe- 119 male was 35 years old, the crude proba- 120 bility of conceiving within 12 cycles 121 decreased from 82% if the male was 35 122 years old to 72% if the male was 40 years 123 old.²⁸ However, in a Danish preconcep- 124 tion cohort study, the crude probability 125 of conceiving within 12 cycles did not 126 vary substantially by male age (86%, 127 81%, and 86% among men 30–34, 128 35–39, and ≥40 years old, respectively), 129 and men who were ≥40 years old had 130 0.95 times the fecundability of men 131 21–24 years old after adjustment for 132 covariates.²⁴

133 To better characterize the age-related 134 decline in fecundability among couples 135 who attempt to conceive naturally, we 136 examined the association between 137 female and male age and fecundability 138 in a preconception cohort study of preg- 139 nancy planners from North America.

141 Material and Methods

142 Study design and population

143 Pregnancy Study Online (PRESTO) is an 144 ongoing prospective cohort study of 145 North American couples who are 146 attempting conception.³³ Recruitment 147 began in June 2013 with the use of pri- 148 marily web-based methods. We used 149 banner advertisements on social 150 networking sites (ie, Facebook) that 151 targeted women based on age, gender, 152 and marital status. We also advertised 153 on health-related websites, pregnancy- 154 related websites, and parenting blogs. 155 Eligible women were 21–45 years old, 156 residents of the United States or Canada, 157 who were in a stable relationship with a 158 male partner and were attempting to 159 conceive without the use of fertility 160 treatments. Female participants could 161 invite their male partner to participate 162 if the partner was ≥21 years old (58% 163 of participating women invited their 164 male partners, and 51% of males invited 165 chose to participate). Participation 166 for both partners involved a baseline

questionnaire on demographics, lifestyle 167 and behavioral factors, and medical and 168 reproductive histories. Women 169 completed shorter bimonthly follow-up 170 questionnaires for up to 12 months to 171 ascertain pregnancies and update expo- 172 sure information.

The study protocol was approved by 173 the institutional review board at Boston 174 University Medical Center. All partici- 175 pants provided informed consent online 176 before initiating the study.

177 Exclusions

178 During the 50 months of recruitment, 179 5249 women completed the baseline 180 questionnaire. We excluded couples in 181 which the woman had implausible or 182 missing last menstrual period (LMP) 183 data (n=175) or was pregnant at study 184 entry (n=46) and couples who had been 185 attempting conception for >3 cycles at 186 study entry (n=1856). We also excluded 187 couples with a history of infertility 188 (n=210), for a final analytic sample of 189 2962 couples.

190 Definition of study variables

191 On the female baseline questionnaire, 192 women reported their date of birth and 193 their partner's current age. On the male 194 baseline questionnaire, men reported 195 their date of birth. We calculated female 196 and male ages at baseline from date of 197 birth and date of female baseline ques- 198 tionnaire completion. When both part- 199 ners participated in the study, we used 200 information from the male question- 201 naire to measure male age. When only 202 the female partner participated, we used 203 information from the female question- 204 naire to measure male age. Agreement 205 between female and male reports of age 206 was high; among the 842 couples in 207 which both partners contributed data, 208 810 couples (96.2%) reported male age 209 identically; 30 couples (3.6%) reported 210 ages discrepant by 1 year; 1 couple 211 (0.1%) reported ages discrepant by 2 212 years, and 1 couple (0.1%) reported ages 213 discrepant by 5 years.

214 We measured fecundability using data 215 from the female baseline and follow-up 216 questionnaires. We asked women with 217 regular menstrual cycles about their 218 typical cycle length. For women with

219 irregular menstrual cycles, we estimated 220 cycle length based on LMP dates at 221 baseline and over the follow-up period. 222 We estimated time-to-pregnancy in 223 discrete menstrual cycles using the 224 following formula: [(cycles of attempt at 225 study entry)+[(LMP date from most 226 recent follow-up questionnaire–date of 227 baseline questionnaire)/cycle length]+1]. 228 Only observed cycles at risk (those that 229 occurred after study entry) were included 230 in the analysis. Women who did not 231 complete any follow-up visits (n=304) 232 were assigned 1 cycle of observation; their 233 outcome information was imputed.

234 We obtained additional information 235 on female and male demographics and 236 behaviors from the female baseline 237 questionnaire. Women reported their 238 race/ethnicity, education level, house- 239 hold income, menstrual cycle charac- 240 teristics, weight, height, physical 241 activity, pregnancy history, smoking 242 history, current alcohol and caffeine 243 intake, intercourse frequency, use of 244 methods to improve chances of 245 conception (ie, recording basal body 246 temperature, monitoring cervical 247 mucus, the use of an ovulation test kit, 248 and other methods), and last method of 249 contraception. Women also reported 250 their male partner's weight, height, 251 education level, and smoking status. 252 Body mass index (BMI) for female and 253 male patients was calculated as weight 254 (kilograms) divided by height (square 255 meters). Vigorous physical activity for 256 women was calculated by summing the 257 hours per week spent participating in 258 each of the following activities: biking, 259 jogging, swimming, racquetball, aero- 260 bics, and free weights.

261 Data analysis

262 All analyses were conducted with the use 263 of SAS software (version 9.4; SAS Insti- 264 tute Inc, Cary, NC).³⁴ We applied 265 life-table methods to estimate the 266 cumulative pregnancy proportion at 6 267 and 12 cycles, overall and by age group. 268 We measured effects of factors that affect 269 fecundability with the fecundability ratio 270 (FR), which is the average per-cycle 271 probability of conception in exposed, 272 compared with unexposed, women; a FR 273 <1.00 indicates that exposure has an

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