

# Counseling in menopausal women: How to address the benefits and risks of menopause hormone therapy. A FIGO position paper

AR Genazzani,<sup>1</sup> H Divakar,<sup>2,3</sup> SS Khadilkar,<sup>3,4</sup> P Monteleone,<sup>5</sup> B Evangelisti,<sup>6</sup> AF Galal,<sup>3,7</sup> PIR Priego,<sup>3,8</sup> T Simoncini,<sup>1</sup> A Giannini,<sup>1</sup> G Goba,<sup>3,9</sup> C Benedetto<sup>3,6</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Division of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Department of Clinical and Experimental Medicine, The University of Pisa, Italy

<sup>2</sup> Obstetrics and Gynaecology, Divakars Speciality Hospital, India

<sup>3</sup> FIGO Committee on Well Woman Health Care, United Kingdom

<sup>4</sup> Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Bombay Hospital Institute of Medical Sciences, India

<sup>5</sup> Division of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Azienda USL Toscana Nord Ovest, Italy

<sup>6</sup> Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Sant'Anna University Hospital, Italy

<sup>7</sup> Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, Elshatby Maternity University Hospital, Egypt

<sup>8</sup> Hospital Ángeles del Pedregal, Mexico

<sup>9</sup> Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University of Illinois, United States of America

**Corresponding author, email:** [chbened@gmail.com](mailto:chbened@gmail.com)

Menopause marks the end of menstrual cyclicality and, depending on individual vulnerability, has several consequences related to gonadal steroid deprivation, especially if it is premature. Menopause may be more burdensome for some women than for others. Individual factors, such as personal history, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and current health conditions, affect symptomatology and, thereby, the menopausal experience. In addition, some menopausal symptoms, such as severe hot flashes, sleep disorders, and depression, are markers of future health risks. Counseling is a fundamental part of health care in the peri- and postmenopause periods. It must include an assessment of the patient's symptoms, needs, desires, and risk profile to address the benefits and risks of menopausal hormone therapy (MHT) on an individual basis and promote a healthy lifestyle. Indeed, healthcare practitioners can and must protect the health and lives of mid-life women by increasing awareness of menopausal symptoms and ensuring healthcare options, especially MHT. The type and duration of MHT should be tailored based on the patient's history, menopausal age, physical characteristics, and current health status so that the benefits always outweigh the risks. This FIGO position paper focuses on the benefits and risks of MHT on health domains, target organs, and systems, and on systemic and vaginal MHT regimens, to provide indications that can be used in the clinical practice for menopausal counseling. Moreover, it offers insights into what FIGO considers the mainstay for the healthcare management of women in peri- and postmenopause, worldwide.

**Keywords:** bioidentical hormones, counseling, hormone therapy, menopausal hormone therapy benefits, menopausal hormone therapy regimens, menopausal hormone therapy risks, menopausal symptoms, menopause

**Republished with permission:** © 2024 The Authors. *Int J Gynecol Obstet.* 2024;164:516-530. DOI:[10.1002/ijgo.15278](https://doi.org/10.1002/ijgo.15278)

## Background

Menopause represents an opportunity for healthcare practitioners to comprehensively audit a woman's physical and psychological condition and to ensure due attention is given to any symptoms or risks she may present that could harm her future health.

With the increase in longevity and extensive research in recent decades, there has been a greater understanding of the impact and health implications that menopause has on women's lives.

Menopause marks the end of menstrual cyclicality and entails several consequences related to gonadal steroid deprivation. In most women, symptoms of menopause substantially affect their quality of life and arise at a time when they still occupy an essential role in the family and society. Early symptoms, such as hot flashes and sweats, mood swings, disturbed sleep, migraine, and poorer cognitive performance, are disruptive and may occur as early as a few years before the final menstrual period (FMP).<sup>1</sup>

Late-onset manifestations, such as central body fat distribution, metabolic and cardiovascular consequences, urogenital atrophy and sexual dysfunction, osteoporosis, and an increased risk of disabling fractures, are frequently insidious.<sup>1</sup> Moreover, menopause accelerates biological aging, especially if severely symptomatic.<sup>2,3</sup>

Natural menopause, secondary to the physiological depletion of ovarian reserve, involves a transition from the reproductive to the post-reproductive phase, termed perimenopause, that may occur over several years.<sup>4</sup> Perimenopause encompasses three stages: early menopausal transition, characterized by persistent cycle irregularity; late menopausal transition, characterized by an interval of amenorrhea of 60 days or more in the prior 12 months; and early postmenopause, the first year after the FMP (Box 1).<sup>4</sup>

Surgical menopause, due to surgical removal of the ovaries, or chemotherapy-/radiotherapy-induced ovarian failure produce

much more abrupt changes.<sup>1</sup> These conditions raise the risk of premature death, cardiovascular disease (CVD), dementia, parkinsonism, and Parkinson's disease significantly more than natural menopause.<sup>5-8</sup>

Worldwide, most women experience their FMP between the ages of 45 and 55 years.<sup>9</sup> Late-onset menopause, occurring after the age of 55 years, bears some health risks, such as an increase in estrogen-sensitive tumors such as breast cancer, as well as benefits, mainly a reduced cognitive decline and risk of CVD,<sup>10-12</sup> due to the more prolonged lifetime exposure to ovarian hormones.<sup>11,12</sup> On the other hand, premature ovarian insufficiency occurs before the age of 40 years, implies a short lifetime exposure to ovarian hormones, and has the worst impact in terms of morbidity and mortality, with a significant increase in cognitive deterioration, cardiovascular events, and osteoporosis-related fractures.<sup>11-13</sup>

Menopause may be more burdensome for some women than for others. In addition, individual factors, such as personal history, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, and current health conditions, especially obesity, affect the menopausal experience.<sup>1</sup>

Vasomotor symptoms, the most disrupting manifestations affecting nearly 75% of women, may last an average of 7.4 years.<sup>14,15</sup> The prevalence of vasomotor symptoms is still significant in older women. Indeed, 39% of women aged 65–69 years, 31% 70–74 years, and 24% aged 75–79 years still report hot flashes.<sup>16</sup> Moreover, vasomotor symptoms, especially nocturnal symptoms, may cluster with other disturbances, such as sleep disruption, fatigue, depression, memory loss, and poor concentration.<sup>17-19</sup>

Women transitioning through menopause often experience problems with memory, concentration, and learning,<sup>20</sup> recently termed brain fog,<sup>21</sup> which causes considerable distress. Small but significant declines in processing speed and verbal memory occur over the long-term in postmenopausal women.<sup>22-24</sup> However, most difficulties are limited to perimenopause.<sup>20</sup> Surgical menopause has more severe consequences on cognitive functions than natural menopause<sup>6</sup> and increases the risk of full-blown dementia, mainly if it occurs before the age of 45 years.<sup>25</sup>

Mood disorders, depression, and anxiety may relapse or worsen during perimenopause, especially in vulnerable women.<sup>26-28</sup> In addition, migraine frequency may also increase in susceptible women.<sup>29</sup> Aging-related weight gain combined with the menopause-related central distribution of fat leads to increased visceral fat, responsible for inducing the metabolic syndrome.<sup>30-32</sup> This phenomenon is accelerated in women who have had surgical menopause.<sup>5</sup>

In addition, the loss of anti-atherogenic and vasodilatory effects of estrogen on the endothelium increases hypertension and atherosclerosis after menopause.<sup>33-35</sup> Together, these factors increase the risk of cardiovascular and cerebrovascular events, such as myocardial infarction and stroke, especially in women with premature ovarian insufficiency.<sup>36</sup>

#### Box 1: Stages of menopause according to Stages of Reproductive Aging Workshop (STRAW) criteria<sup>16,4</sup>

##### Menopausal transition:

- Early menopausal transition (*Stage -2*) lasts a variable number of years and is characterized by a persistent  $\geq 7$ -day difference in length of consecutive cycles
- Late menopausal transition (*Stage -1*) is estimated to last on average 1–3 years before the FMP and is characterized by an interval of amenorrhea of  $\geq 60$  days

##### Perimenopause means the time around the menopause and includes:

- Early menopausal transition (*Stage -2*)
- Late menopausal transition (*Stage -1*)
- The first year after the FMP (early postmenopause *Stage +1a*)

##### Postmenopause:

- Early postmenopause lasts approximately 5–8 years and includes the following stages:
  - *Stage +1a* lasts 1 year. It marks the end of the 12-month period of amenorrhea required to define that the FMP has occurred and corresponds to the end of the "perimenopause"
  - *Stage +1b* lasts 1 year. It includes the remainder of the period of rapid changes in mean FSH and estradiol levels
  - *Stage +1c* is estimated to last 3–6 years. It represents the period of stabilization of high FSH levels and low estradiol values
- Late postmenopause (*Stage +2*) includes the remaining lifespan. It represents the period in which further changes in the reproductive endocrine function are more limited and processes of somatic aging become of paramount concern.

Abbreviations: FMP, final menstrual period; FSH, follicle-stimulating hormone.

In its early stages, menopause is commonly associated with decreased sexual libido<sup>37</sup> and, later on, vulvovaginal atrophy and dyspareunia, which can lead to sexual dysfunction<sup>38,39</sup> and interfere with social and psychological well-being. Genitourinary syndromes will also include dysuria and recurrent urinary tract infections.<sup>38</sup> Urinary incontinence is probably related to weight gain and an increase in waist-to-hip ratio during this period of life.<sup>40</sup>

Menopause is directly responsible for the never-ending decrease in bone mineral density, which is rapid within the first 3–5 years from the FMP.<sup>41</sup> As a result, osteoporosis, initially in trabecular bone and then in cortical bone, increases the risk of fractures, which occur most frequently in the spine, hip, and wrist.<sup>41</sup> In addition, sarcopenia and the loss of muscle tone that ensue after menopause are facilitating factors for fractures.<sup>42</sup>

Healthcare practitioners should also bear in mind that some symptoms of menopause are markers of future health risks. Severe vasomotor symptomatology and poor sleep quality are associated with an increased risk of CVD<sup>43,44</sup> and depression.<sup>45</sup> Moreover, vasomotor symptoms, sleep disorders, and depression might increase the susceptibility to develop cognitive dysfunction.<sup>46,47</sup> Severe hot flashes have also been associated with an increased risk of osteoporosis and bone fracture.<sup>48</sup>

There may be an individual vulnerability, whereby some women have more symptoms and more significant morbidity related to the loss of exposure to estrogen.

**Box 2: Contraindications to menopausal hormone therapy**

Personal history of:

- Breast cancer
- Severe active liver disease
- Coronary heart disease
- Stroke
- Venous thromboembolic event

These contraindications do not apply to transvaginal-based estrogen therapies, as the serum concentration of estrogen from this route is extremely low.

**FIGO position on the issue**

Healthcare practitioners can, and must, protect the health and lives of mid-life women by increasing awareness of the symptoms of menopause, providing healthcare options, namely menopausal hormone therapy (MHT), and promoting healthy lifestyle changes. Modifications made before or during the menopausal transition have the most significant impact, even at an older age.

In women with bothersome symptoms of menopause, namely vasomotor and urogenital, and absence of contraindications (Box 2), MHT is the first line of treatment. However, MHT should be personalized based on the patient's history, chronological and menopausal age, physical characteristics, and current health status so that the benefits always outweigh the risks.

To obtain the most significant benefits, MHT should be started as soon as possible after menopausal symptoms appear and continued while the risk–benefit ratio is favorable.

**MHT benefits and risks on health domains, target organs, and systems****Longevity**

Overall mortality in estrogen-progestogen users is decreased.<sup>49–51</sup> Women with premature menopause who start MHT before the age of 50 years achieve the most significant benefit in terms of longevity.<sup>50</sup>

**Central nervous system****Vasomotor symptoms**

MHT effectively alleviates vasomotor symptoms, even at low doses.<sup>52,53</sup> Estrogen-progestogen preparations and the bazedoxifene/conjugated estrogens (BZA/CE) combination are the most successful.<sup>54</sup> Tibolone is also a valid option to provide relief from hot flashes.<sup>55</sup> Whatever the composition, it is advisable to begin any hormone treatment at the lowest effective dose and titrate until control of symptoms is achieved.<sup>52–55</sup>

**Sleep**

The benefits of estrogen-progestogen therapy (EPT) include improved sleep quality.<sup>56–58</sup> All improvements in sleep domains correlate with a reduction in vasomotor symptoms, except for sleep latency and sleep efficiency,<sup>56,57</sup> demonstrating that the positive effect of EPT on subjective sleep cannot be fully explained by decreased bothersome vasomotor or depressive symptoms.<sup>57</sup> The explanation may lie in additional underlying

biological mechanisms for EPT-mediated improvements in self-reported sleep, such as a reduction in the hypothalamus-pituitary–adrenal axis sensitivity and reactivity.<sup>57</sup> Progesterone alone is also beneficial for sleep.<sup>59</sup>

The BZA/CE combination favors sleep in postmenopausal women with moderate to severe vasomotor symptoms.<sup>60</sup>

**Cognition and mood**

In women aged 75 years or older, a long duration of past MHT exposure, either with estrogen alone or with estrogen-progestogens, is positively associated with cognitive status, especially when MHT is started within 5 years from the FMP.<sup>11</sup>

Indeed, the notion of a “critical window” of MHT has arisen whereby MHT may improve cognition when started in the perimenopausal period but become deleterious if started too far from the FMP.<sup>61</sup>

The evidence suggests that the use of MHT, particularly in women who have had surgical menopause, especially when young, is protective against cognitive impairment.<sup>61,62</sup>

Likewise, MHT is likely to be more efficacious on mood when started at a younger age. Furthermore, MHT and antidepressants seem to have a positive cumulative effect on clinical depression.<sup>61</sup>

In addition, in women who are APOE4 carriers and therefore at high risk for Alzheimer's disease, early MHT may represent an effective targeted strategy to mitigate their higher lifetime risk of Alzheimer's disease.<sup>63,64</sup>

Further investigation in this area is still warranted, as data from the literature are somewhat contradictory. Indeed, recent North European Finnish/Danish case–control studies, based on national registries, have pointed towards a relationship between MHT and the risk of developing Alzheimer's disease and/or late-onset dementia.<sup>65,66</sup>

However, these studies have several essential biases. First, they are not randomized controlled trials. Second, the women were prescribed MHT because of vasomotor symptoms, often associated with sleep and mood disorders, which make them intrinsically more prone to developing cognitive dysfunction.<sup>67,68</sup> Women with a predisposition for dementia may also have been prevalent in the Danish trial population as, during the study years, MHT was prescribed to prevent cognitive deterioration. Finally, in the Danish report, an increase in the risk of dementia was present for a duration of therapy as small as less than 1 year, suggesting the presence of confounding factors (alcohol, smoking, social isolation) that weaken the hypothesis of a direct causation.

**Sexuality**

In early postmenopause, transdermal estradiol-based treatment significantly improves overall female sexual function, whereas oral conjugated equine estrogens (CEE)-based treatment has less effect.<sup>69</sup> Tibolone is the most effective therapy for restoring sexual function, including desire, sexual interest, and

satisfaction, which may be attributed to its combined estrogenic and androgenic properties.<sup>70</sup>

In women who develop hypoactive sexual desire disorder, transdermal testosterone treatment can be used to restore sexual function, bearing in mind that proper dosing should both attain and maintain total testosterone levels in the premenopausal physiological range and that safety data are not available beyond 2 years of treatment.<sup>71–73</sup> Moreover, it should be stopped if there is no response within 6 months of treatment.<sup>69</sup> Women with premature and early surgically induced menopause are potential candidates for testosterone therapy because of their experience of abrupt loss of ovarian androgen and substantial prevalence of hypoactive sexual desire disorder.<sup>72,74</sup>

Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) oral supplementation may be used in women with low sex drive associated with low levels of circulating dehydroepiandrosterone.<sup>75,76</sup>

Prasterone (vaginal DHEA) may be used efficiently to improve all sexual domains in women with vulvovaginal atrophy and moderate to severe dyspareunia.<sup>76,77</sup>

### **Osteo-skeletal system**

Menopausal EPT significantly reduces the risk of hip, vertebral, and total fractures, with a parallel increase in bone mineral density (BMD),<sup>78</sup> and this benefit persists well after MHT cessation.<sup>79–81</sup> Likewise, tibolone increases BMD and reduces fracture risk, even at low doses (1.25 mg/day).<sup>82</sup>

### **Cardiovascular system**

The effect of MHT differs according to age at initiation of MHT and time since menopause.

Women starting treatment under the age of 60 years and/ or earlier, or at most within 10 years from their FMP, have a lower risk of death from cardiovascular causes and non-fatal myocardial infarction.<sup>83–87</sup> It is noteworthy that those benefits persist years after the cessation of MHT.<sup>77,82</sup> Indeed, the first 10 years from FMP offer a “window of opportunity” due to the anti-atherogenic and vasodilatory effects estrogens have on healthy cardiovascular structures.<sup>83–87</sup>

In the second decade after the FMP, estrogens have a fairly neutral effect, and therefore, women may still enjoy the benefits of MHT without fearing an increase in cardiovascular events.<sup>83</sup> When more than 20 years have passed from the FMP, MHT should not be started as this could significantly increase cardiac thrombo-occlusive events due to a vascular disease that has developed over time.<sup>83</sup> Generally speaking, lifetime cumulative estrogen exposure decreases the risk of ischemic and hemorrhagic stroke.<sup>88</sup> This is in line with the finding that transdermal estrogens<sup>89–92</sup> and oral estradiol<sup>92</sup> tend to decrease the risk of stroke, whereas the use of oral CEE, at intermediate and high doses, increases the risk of ischemic stroke.<sup>89</sup> Time of oral CEE initiation from FMP may play a role, as the longer the time lapse from FMP, the higher the risk.<sup>92</sup>

Transdermal estrogens do not increase the risk of venous thromboembolism (VTE),<sup>93–95</sup> while oral estradiol, and particularly CEE, do.<sup>94</sup>

Another critical determinant of thrombotic risk is the type of progestogens associated with estrogens used by women with an intact uterus. Indeed, micronized progesterone and dydrogesterone do not increase the risk, but norethisterone, namely norethisterone acetate and norethisterone, as well as MPA, do increase the risk.<sup>89,93–95</sup>

Therefore, the use of transdermal estrogens and, where indicated, micronized progesterone or dydrogesterone should be preferred in women who have an increased baseline thrombotic risk.<sup>96</sup>

Tibolone does not increase the risk of VTE<sup>94</sup> but does increase the risk of stroke in women aged 60–85 years.<sup>97</sup> Therefore, it should not be used in elderly women or those with stroke risk factors, such as hypertension, tobacco smoking, diabetes, and/or atrial fibrillation.<sup>97</sup>

The cardiovascular risk profile is acceptable for the BZD/CE combination.<sup>98</sup>

### **Endocrine system**

Estrogen and EPT improve insulin resistance and lower progression to diabetes in postmenopausal women.<sup>99,100</sup> The tissue-selective estrogen complex (BZD/CE) has neutral effects on glucose metabolism,<sup>101</sup> while tibolone reduces insulin sensitivity and should not be used in women with prediabetes or diabetes.<sup>102</sup>

### **Female reproductive and genitourinary systems**

#### *Breast*

According to randomized clinical trials, CEE-only therapy is associated with a lower incidence and mortality of breast cancer incidence,<sup>103</sup> and estradiol-only therapy carries no risk for breast cancer.<sup>104</sup>

EPT in women with an intact uterus has a variable impact on the risk of breast cancer, depending on the type of progestogens used in combination with estrogens: medroxyprogesterone acetate (MPA),<sup>103–107</sup> norethisterone (NETA),<sup>104–106</sup> and levonorgestrel (LNG)<sup>104–106</sup> increase the risk of breast cancer, whereas dydrogesterone<sup>101,104</sup> and especially progesterone,<sup>104,106</sup> do not.

Due to their neutral effect on the risk of breast cancer, natural progesterone or its isomer, dydrogesterone, should be considered the first choice for endometrial protection in women with an intact uterus.<sup>104,106,107</sup>

During CEE + MPA treatment, the risk of breast cancer increases with the duration of use,<sup>105</sup> but it drops substantially in the early post-treatment phase (within 2.7 years), although the relative risk remains higher than 1 through 5.5 years (median) of additional follow-up.<sup>105,108</sup>

Nevertheless, in the Finnish population, the risk of breast cancer mortality was reported to be reduced not only in women using estradiol-only therapy but also in those using estradiol-progestogen regimens (43% NETA, 30% MPA), especially in the age groups of 50–59 and 60–69 years.<sup>109</sup>

Indeed, neither unopposed estrogen nor estrogen-progestogen regimens used after surgical menopause or premature ovarian insufficiency are associated with an increased risk of young-onset breast cancer before the age of 50 years.<sup>110</sup>

Tibolone has a neutral effect on the risk of breast cancer only with a short duration of use (<5 years). Thereafter, the risk increases.<sup>104,106</sup> However, in the Korean population, tibolone has been shown to lower the risk of breast cancer, both after short and long duration of use.<sup>111</sup>

Although the literature is scant, BZA/CE appears to have a favorable breast-related safety profile as it does not increase mammographic breast density<sup>111</sup> and has been shown to have a neutral effect on the risk of breast cancer over follow-up periods of 5 and 7 years.<sup>112,113</sup>

#### Uterus

Systemic estrogen-only therapy can cause endometrial hyperplasia or cancer in women with an intact uterus and should, therefore, always be combined with a progestogen.<sup>114</sup> Continuous combined EPT is associated with a decreased risk of endometrial cancer, especially in obese women.<sup>115,116</sup>

Tibolone is associated with an increased risk of endometrial cancer, particularly for type 1 endometrial cancer and especially with a long duration of use (10+ years).<sup>117</sup>

#### Ovary

Both estrogen-only and estrogen-progestogen hormone therapies are associated with an increased risk of serous and endometrioid ovarian cancer.<sup>118</sup> Likewise, tibolone is associated with an increased risk of epithelial ovarian cancer overall, particularly serous ovarian cancer, especially with a long duration of use (10+ years).<sup>117</sup>

Women with a history of endometriosis must be informed of the possibility of disease recurrence with MHT. In these women, even when subjected to hysterectomy, continuous combined preparations and tibolone should be considered instead of unopposed estrogens.<sup>119</sup> Moreover, recent data suggest that in women with a history of endometriosis or de novo endometriosis, the risk of epithelial ovarian cancer appears to be increased after estrogen-only treatment, whereas EPT and tibolone therapy are neutral.<sup>120</sup>

#### Vulva, vagina and urinary tract

Estrogen, estrogen-progestogen, and tibolone therapy reduce bothersome symptoms of vulvovaginal atrophy.<sup>121,122</sup>

The effect of MHT on urinary symptoms depends on the type used. Systemic MHT may cause urinary incontinence<sup>123</sup> or worsen existing urinary symptoms, while vaginal estrogens improve

dysuria, frequency, urge and stress incontinence, and recurrent urinary tract infections.<sup>124</sup>

Moreover, it is advisable to inform women with pre-existing pelvic organ prolapse that exposure to systemic estrogen-progestogen regimens might negatively affect this problem.<sup>125</sup>

Orally administered ospemifene is an effective non-estrogen systemic treatment specifically for vulvovaginal atrophy with a good cardiovascular safety profile.<sup>126,127</sup>

#### Gastrointestinal system

Estrogen, estrogen-progestogen, and tibolone therapy lower the risk of colorectal cancer in women.<sup>128,129</sup>

#### MHT Regimens

When deciding to begin MHT, the route of delivery, dose, and type of estrogens or estrogen-progestogens should be carefully pondered based on a woman's characteristics (Table 1).

#### Systemic MHT

In healthy, normal-weight early postmenopausal women (approximately 5–8 years from the FMP), the following regimens are generally suitable: oral estrogens or transdermal estradiol at medium doses combined with cyclic or continuous progestogens for endometrial protection;<sup>130</sup> tibolone at low to standard doses;<sup>55</sup> and tissue selective estrogen complex at the standard dose.<sup>101</sup>

In healthy late postmenopausal women, MHT may be continued but seldom begun,<sup>86,87</sup> with the following regimens:<sup>130</sup> low doses of transdermal estradiol<sup>89,91</sup> or low doses of oral estrogens,<sup>89</sup> associated with micronized progesterone or its isomer, dydrogesterone, administered continuously, where there is an indication for endometrial protection;<sup>130</sup> and low-dose tibolone.<sup>55</sup>

In overweight (body mass index [BMI, calculated as weight in kilograms divided by the square of height in meters] >25) early postmenopausal women (approximately 5–8 years from the FMP), the following regimen is generally suitable: transdermal estrogens<sup>87,89</sup> combined with cyclic or continuous progestogens.<sup>130</sup>

In women who have had surgical removal of the ovaries before the age of 50 years, the following regimens are generally suitable: medium to high doses of oral estrogens or transdermal estradiol, in combination with appropriate doses of progestogens, where indicated;<sup>130</sup> transcutaneous testosterone therapy may be necessary when hypoactive sexual desire disorder is diagnosed at a dose that achieves the normal premenopausal range of circulating testosterone levels.<sup>71</sup>

In women with primary ovarian insufficiency (POI) needing contraception, the following regimens are generally suitable for the first few years after diagnosis: low-dose estrogen-progestogen contraceptives; and estrogen associated with a levonorgestrel (LNG) intrauterine system.<sup>75</sup>

Women transitioning through perimenopause with contraceptive needs may also use the abovementioned regimens.

estradiol, combined with appropriate doses of progestogens, where indicated.<sup>130</sup>

In women with POI without contraceptive needs, the following may be used: medium to high doses of oral or transdermal

In women with symptoms of fatigue, depression, and/or a reduced sexual desire associated with low endogenous DHEA

**Table I:** Systemic MHT regimens.

Formulation	Route	Regimen	Dose/day
<b>Early postmenopause (within 5–8 years from the FMP), healthy, normal weight</b>			
Estrogens-progestogens	Oral	Combined sequential <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>E2 2 mg + dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> <li>E2 1 mg + dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> <li>CEE 0.625 mg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> </ul>
		Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>E2 1 mg + oral/vaginal MP 100 mg</li> <li>E2 1 mg + dydrogesterone 5 mg</li> <li>E2 1 mg + DRSP 2 mg</li> <li>E2 1 mg + NETA 1 mg</li> <li>CEE 0.625 mg + oral/vaginal MP 100 mg</li> </ul>
	Transdermal (patch)	Combined sequential <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17βE2 50 µg + LNG 150 µg</li> <li>17βE2 50 µg + NETA 250 µg</li> <li>17βE2 25–50 µg + oral/vaginal MP 100–200 mg</li> <li>17βE2 25–50 µg + oral dydrogesterone 5–10 mg</li> </ul>
		Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17βE2 25–50 µg + oral/vaginal MP 100–200 mg</li> <li>17βE2 25–50 µg + oral dydrogesterone 5–10 mg</li> <li>17βE2 25–50 µg + 20 µg LNG-IUS</li> </ul>
	Transcutaneous (gel, spray)	Combined sequential <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17βE2 1–2 mg + oral/vaginal MP 100–200 mg</li> <li>17βE2 1–2 mg + oral dydrogesterone 5–10 mg</li> </ul>
		Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17βE2 1–2 mg + oral/vaginal MP 100–200 mg</li> <li>17βE2 1–2 mg + oral dydrogesterone 5–10 mg</li> <li>17βE2 1–2 mg + 20 µg LNG-IUS</li> </ul>
Tissue selective estrogen complex	Oral	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Bazedoxifene 20 mg + CEE 0.45 mg</li> </ul>
Selective tissue estrogenic activity regulator	Oral	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Tibolone 1.25–2.5 mg (low-standard dose)</li> </ul>
Androgens	Transdermal (cream)	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Testosterone cream 1% 300 µg/day (1/10th standard male dose)</li> </ul>
	Oral	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>DHEA 10–25 mg</li> </ul>
<b>Late postmenopause (after 5–8 years from the FMP), healthy, normal weight</b>			
Estrogens-progestogens	Oral	Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>E2 1 mg + oral/vaginal MP 100 mg</li> <li>E2 1 mg + dydrogesterone 5 mg</li> <li>E2 1 mg + DRSP 2 mg</li> <li>CEE 0.3–0.45 mg + oral/vaginal MP 100 mg</li> </ul>
	Transdermal (patch)	Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17βE2 25 µg + oral/vaginal MP 100 mg</li> <li>17βE2 25 µg + oral dydrogesterone 5 mg</li> </ul>
	Transcutaneous (gel, spray)	Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17βE2 0.50–1 mg + oral/vaginal MP 100 mg</li> <li>17βE2 0.50–1 mg + oral dydrogesterone 5 mg</li> </ul>
Selective tissue estrogenic activity regulator	Oral	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Tibolone 1.25 mg</li> </ul>
Androgens	Oral	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>DHEA 10–25 mg</li> </ul>
<b>Early postmenopause (within 5–8 years from the FMP) and overweight (BMI &gt; 25)</b>			
Estrogens-progestogens	Transdermal (patch)	Combined sequential <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17βE2 25–50 µg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> <li>17βE2 25–50 µg + oral dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> </ul>
		Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17βE2 25–50 µg + oral/vaginal MP 100–200 mg</li> <li>17βE2 25–50 µg + oral dydrogesterone 5–10 mg</li> <li>17βE2 25–50 µg + 20 µg LNG-IUS</li> </ul>
	Transcutaneous (gel, spray)	Combined sequential <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17βE2 1–1.5 mg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> <li>17βE2 1–1.5 mg + oral dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> </ul>
		Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>17βE2 1–1.5 mg + oral/vaginal MP 100–200 mg</li> <li>17βE2 1–1.5 mg + oral dydrogesterone 5–10 mg</li> <li>17βE2 1–1.5 mg + 20 µg LNG-IUS</li> </ul>

Table I: Continued

Formulation	Route	Regimen	Dose/day
<b>Late menopause (after 5–8 years from the FMP) and overweight (BMI &gt; 25)</b>			
Estrogens-progestogens	Transdermal (patch)	Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 25 µg + oral/vaginal MP 100 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 25 µg + oral dydrogesterone 5 mg</li> </ul>
	Transcutaneous (gel, spray)	Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 0.50–1 mg + oral/vaginal MP 100 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 0.50–1 mg + oral dydrogesterone 5 mg</li> </ul>
<b>Surgical menopause</b>			
<b>Intact uterus</b>			
Estrogens-progestogens	Oral	Combined sequential <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• E2 2 mg + dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> <li>• E2 1 mg + dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> <li>• CEE 0.625 mg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> <li>• E2 1–2 mg + MP 100–200 mg</li> </ul>
		Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• E2 1 mg + MP 100 mg</li> <li>• E2 1 mg + dydrogesterone 5 mg</li> <li>• E2 1 mg + DRSP 2 mg</li> <li>• E2 1 mg + NETA 1 mg</li> <li>• CEE 0.625 + oral/vaginal MP 100 mg</li> </ul>
	Transdermal (patch)	Combined sequential <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 50 µg + LNG 150 µg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50 µg + NETA 250 µg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50–100 µg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50–100 µg + oral dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> </ul>
		Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 50 µg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50 µg + oral dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50 µg + 20 µg LNG-IUS</li> </ul>
	Transcutaneous (gel, spray)	Combined sequential <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 1.5–2 mg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 1.5–2 mg + oral dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> </ul>
		Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 1.5 mg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 1.5 mg + oral dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> </ul>
Androgens	Transdermal (cream)	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Testosterone 1% cream 300 µg (1/10th standard male dose)</li> </ul>
	Oral	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• DHEA 10–25 mg</li> </ul>
<b>Hysterectomized</b>			
Estrogens	Oral	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• E2 1–2 mg</li> <li>• CEE 0.625 mg</li> </ul>
	Transdermal (patch)		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 50–100 µg</li> </ul>
Androgens	Transcutaneous (gel, spray)	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 1.5–2 mg</li> </ul>
	Transdermal (cream)	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Testosterone 1% cream 300 µg (1/10th of standard male dose)</li> </ul>
	Oral	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• DHEA 10–25 mg</li> </ul>
<b>Premature ovarian insufficiency</b>			
<b>Contraceptive needs</b>			
Estrogens-progestogens	Oral	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• E2 hemihydrate 1.5 mg + NOMAC 2.5 mg</li> <li>• E2 valerate 1–3 mg + DNG 2–3 mg</li> </ul>
<b>Non-contraceptive needs</b>			
Estrogens-progestogens	Oral	Combined sequential <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• E2 2 mg + dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> <li>• CEE 0.625 + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> </ul>
		Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 50–100 µg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50–100 µg + oral dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50–100 µg + 20 µg LNG-IUS</li> </ul>
	Transdermal (patch)	Combined sequential <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 50 µg + LNG 150 µg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50 µg + NETA 250 µg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50–100 µg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50–100 µg + oral dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> </ul>
		Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 50–100 µg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50–100 µg + oral dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 50–100 µg + 20 µg LNG-IUS</li> </ul>
	Transcutaneous (gel, spray)	Combined sequential <sup>a</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 1.5–2 mg + oral/vaginal MP 200 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 1.5–2 mg + oral dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> </ul>
		Combined continuous <sup>b</sup>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 17βE2 1.5–2 mg + oral MP 100–200 mg</li> <li>• 17βE2 1.5–2 mg + oral dydrogesterone 10 mg</li> </ul>
Androgens	Transdermal	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Testosterone 1% cream 300 µg (1/10th standard male dose)</li> </ul>
	Oral	Continuous	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• DHEA 10–25 mg</li> </ul>

Abbreviations: 17βE2, 17 beta-estradiol; CEE, conjugated equine estrogens; E2, estradiol; DHEA, dehydroepiandrosterone; DNG, dienogest; DRSP, drospirenone; FMP, final menstrual period; LNG-IUS, levonorgestrel intrauterine system; MHT, menopausal hormone therapy; MP, micronized progesterone; NETA, norethisterone acetate; NOMAC, nomegestrol acetate.

<sup>a</sup>Progestogen is administered for 12–14 days/cycle.

<sup>b</sup>Progestogen is administered daily.

**Box 3: Vaginal menopausal hormone therapy formulations**

- E2 10 µg vaginal tablets
- E2 7.5 µg/24 h, vaginal ring
- Estriol 500 µg/day cream
- Estriol 50 µg/day gel
- Promestriene 10 mg vaginal capsules
- Prasterone (DHEA) 6.5 mg vaginal suppositories

Abbreviations: DHEA, dehydroepiandrosterone; E2, estradiol.

levels, supplemental DHEA may be considered at a starting dose of 10 mg/day up to 25 mg/day alone or as an adjunct to systemic MHT.<sup>75,76</sup> Table I lists standard systemic MHT regimens.

**Vaginal MHT**

Vaginal estrogen therapy is the first-line treatment for the symptoms of vulvovaginal atrophy, such as dryness, dyspareunia, itching, and/or burning.<sup>131</sup> Moreover, it has been proven efficient in ameliorating dysuria, urinary frequency/urgency, and recurrent lower urinary tract infections.<sup>132,133</sup> Vaginal estrogen therapy is more effective than systemic estrogen therapy in this domain<sup>121</sup> and has an excellent safety profile.<sup>106,134–136</sup> Moreover, it may be used alone, in which case there is no need for endometrial protection or in association with systemic MHT (Box 3).

Prasterone (vaginal DHEA) treatment alleviates vulvovaginal atrophy, difficult lubrication, dyspareunia, and arousal.<sup>76,77</sup>

Because of their neutral effect on the risk of breast cancer and very low systemic absorption, both low-dose vaginal estrogens and prasterone may be considered an off-label treatment in women with breast cancer when symptoms of genitourinary menopause persist after trials of non-hormonal interventions and quality of life is adversely affected.<sup>137</sup> Box 3 lists standard vaginal MHT formulations.

**Compounded bioidentical hormone formulations**

Bioidentical hormones have been defined as “substances that have the same chemical and molecular structure as hormones that are produced in the human body”.<sup>138</sup> However, this definition does not address the manufacturing, source, or delivery methods of the products and, therefore, may be misleading as it can cover both Food and Drug Administration (FDA)-approved formulations as well as non-FDA-approved custom-compounded products that are prepared for an individual patient by a pharmacist in response to a licensed practitioner’s prescription.<sup>139</sup>

Compounded bioidentical hormone products have often been promoted as a “safe”/“safer”, “natural”, and more effective alternative to manufactured FDA-approved hormone therapies to relieve symptoms of menopause.<sup>138</sup> However, there is little or no scientific evidence to support the marketing myth of such a claim.<sup>140</sup>

Indeed, there are major concerns about compounded bioidentical hormone products that may consist of untested and unapproved combinations of multiple hormones and be used through nonstandard or untested routes of administration, such

as subdermal implants, pellets, or troches.<sup>141</sup> Concerns include insufficient randomized trials to assess their efficacy or safety in treating symptoms of menopause, as well as their purity, potency, overall quality, and lack of labeling outlining risks.<sup>140–142</sup>

Moreover, pharmacokinetic studies have reported that their bioavailability, bioactivity, and potency differ from batch to batch.<sup>140</sup> The variable absorption of compounded estrogens and progesterone may lead to under- or overdosing, which could increase the risk of estrogen-stimulated cancers, especially endometrial cancers.<sup>140</sup> Therefore, although there are some exceptions where compounded bioidentical hormone preparations may be acceptable, such as in cases of allergy to ingredients or dosages not available in FDA-approved products,<sup>140,141</sup> FIGO recommends the use of approved, regulated, and monitored bioidentical systemic and vaginal hormone therapies.

**Follow-up and re assessment**

Regular reassessment of the woman’s health status is mandatory. Once optimal control of symptoms has been achieved, women should be checked annually, especially if they are on MHT.

Body weight and blood pressure should be monitored. Moreover, menopausal women must undergo timely screening for breast cancer by mammography, which hormone therapy does not interfere with.<sup>143</sup> Ultrasound examination of the endometrium in women on MHT, by any route, that reports bleeding is mandatory and may prompt hysteroscopic endometrial sampling if the thickness is over 4 mm.<sup>144</sup> Recurrent bleeding should always be investigated by endometrial biopsy, whatever the endometrial thickness assessed by ultrasound.<sup>144</sup> The monitoring of endometrial thickness in asymptomatic women is less specific and the ideal cutoff for invasive procedures has not been investigated thoroughly. Therefore, the need for further investigation should be based on the individual risk factors for endometrial cancer.<sup>145,146</sup>

MHT may be continued as long as women maintain their health status and contraindications do not develop. The benefits must always outweigh the risks.<sup>130</sup>

**Lifestyle**

Well-tailored MHT should not preclude healthy lifestyle changes, which are the mainstay of primary prevention.

Moderate-intensity physical activity for 150–300 min per week or vigorous-intensity physical activity for 75–150 min per week is recommended to reduce cardiovascular and cancer morbidity and mortality in all adults.<sup>147</sup> Breaking up prolonged sitting with standing or walking for 5 min every 20 min also has a positive impact on cardiovascular risks.<sup>148</sup> High-intensity exercise increases lumbar spine BMD.<sup>149</sup> Although evidence on the effects of multicomponent exercise programs in postmenopausal and older women remains conflicting, combining resistance training using high-intensity loads and impact-aerobic activities may be the best strategy to enhance muscle and bone mass.<sup>150</sup>

Healthy eating, such as that of the Mediterranean diet, and physical activity are pivotal in containing cardiovascular and cancer risks at mid-life and beyond.<sup>151–155</sup>

Maintaining alcohol consumption that meets public health recommendations and avoiding smoking are also key to reducing such risks.<sup>156,157</sup>

Last but not least, engaging in leisure activities, such as visiting art exhibitions, reading, listening to music, singing, and painting, is positively associated with a lower risk of depression, dementia, and death by any cause. Therefore, it can be considered a health and well-being resource to help middle-aged and older women.<sup>158–163</sup>

### Summary of key points

- Post-reproductive health is a global priority as menopause comes at a time when women still occupy an essential role in the family and society. Counseling on the benefits and risks of MHT and lifestyle education is a must.
- Type and duration of MHT should be tailored based on patient history, menopausal age, physical characteristics, and current health status so that the benefits always outweigh the risks.
- Menopausal women should undergo regular reassessment of their health conditions, especially if they are on MHT.

### Longevity

- Women on MHT to relieve their symptoms of menopause will benefit from a significant increase in longevity.
- Women who develop POI and start MHT before the age of 50 years achieve the most significant benefit in terms of longevity.

### Vasomotor symptoms

- Women experiencing menopausal vasomotor symptoms, with no contraindications for systemic hormone therapy, should be offered MHT to relieve their symptoms.

### Sleep

- Women with sleep disorders prescribed MHT to relieve their symptoms of menopause will benefit from a significant improvement in sleep.

### Cognition and mood

- Women who have had surgical menopause, especially when young, should be offered MHT to reduce their lifetime risk of cognitive impairment.
- Women who begin MHT close to the FMP to relieve their symptoms of menopause will benefit from a significant reduction in risk of cognitive deterioration.

### Sexuality

- Tibolone is the most effective therapy in terms of restoration of sexual function.
- In early postmenopause, transdermal estradiol-based treatment is associated with a significant improvement in overall female sexual function, whereas oral CEE-based therapy is less effective.

- Women with hypoactive sexual desire disorder, whose sexual function does not improve under MHT, can be offered a short trial of transdermal testosterone.

### Osteo-skeletal system

- Women on MHT to relieve their symptoms of menopause will benefit from a significant reduction in osteoporosis-related fracture risk, which persists well after the cessation of MHT.

### Cardiovascular system

- Women on MHT to relieve their symptoms of menopause will benefit from a significant reduction in the risk of CVD if it is begun within 10 years from the FMP.
- Transdermal estrogens and, where indicated, micronized progesterone or dydrogesterone should be the first choice MHT, especially in women with a baseline increased thromboembolic risk.

### Endocrine system

- Women with prediabetes or diabetes on estrogen or estrogen-progestogen MHT to relieve their symptoms of menopause will benefit from a significant improvement in metabolic compensation.
- Women with prediabetes or diabetes should not be offered tibolone to improve their symptoms of menopause.

### Breast

- Women with premature ovarian insufficiency on MHT will not increase their risk of young-onset breast cancer before the age of 50 years.
- Women on estrogen-only MHT to alleviate symptoms of menopause will not increase their risk of breast cancer.
- Women with an intact uterus should be offered natural progesterone or dydrogesterone for endometrial protection to avoid increasing their risk of breast cancer.
- Tibolone should be used for a short period of time (<5 years) to avoid increasing the risk of breast cancer.

### Uterus

- Women with an intact uterus on continuous combined estrogen-progestogen MHT to relieve their symptoms of menopause will benefit from a significant reduction in the risk of endometrial cancer.
- Women with an increased baseline risk for endometrial cancer due to individual factors should not be offered tibolone to relieve their symptoms of menopause.

### Ovary

- Women at risk of ovarian cancer must be informed that both estrogen-only and estrogen-progestogen hormone therapies, as well as tibolone treatment, increase the risk of epithelial ovarian cancer.
- Women with a history of endometriosis can be offered combined estrogen-progestogen or tibolone to relieve their symptoms of menopause.

### Gastrointestinal system

- Women on MHT to relieve their symptoms of menopause will benefit from a significant reduction in the risk of colorectal cancer.

### Vulva, vagina and urinary tract

- Vaginal estrogen therapy is the first-line treatment for symptoms of vulvovaginal atrophy.
- Prasterone (vaginal DHEA) treatment alleviates vulvovaginal atrophy, difficult lubrication, and/or arousal.
- Women on systemic MHT to relieve their symptoms of menopause will benefit from a significant reduction in vulvovaginal atrophy.
- Orally administered ospemifene is an effective non-estrogen systemic treatment for vulvovaginal atrophy.
- Women experiencing dysuria, frequency, urinary frequency/urgency, and recurrent lower urinary tract infections should be offered vaginal estrogen therapy.

### Lifestyle

- Healthy eating and physical activity are pivotal in containing cardiovascular and cancer risks. Maintaining alcohol consumption that meets public health recommendations and avoiding smoking are also key to reducing such risks.
- Leisure activities can reduce the risk of depression, dementia, and death by any cause.

### FIGO's commitments

With this position paper, FIGO recognizes the vital role women play well after childbearing age and the need for all physicians working in women's health to further develop the necessary knowledge to sustain women in post-reproductive life.

FIGO commits itself to:

1. Educational interventions in primary care settings for general practitioners and gynecologists aimed at improving physicians' knowledge on menopause so as to be prepared to provide reassurance on symptoms, and counseling on a healthy lifestyle and, where indicated, on hormone therapy to improve women's quality of life;
2. Promoting the study of menopausal medicine in the core curriculum of university medical graduate and postgraduate programs;
3. Interventions to increase social awareness of menopause and its impact on women to promote understanding in the home and work environment;
4. Promote reimbursement policies for officially approved indications of MHT, which may impact healthcare costs for age-related pathologies, including osteoporotic fractures, cardiovascular events, and colorectal cancer.

FIGO supports preventive medicine and the appropriate use of MHT as they have the potential to increase disability-free life expectancy for menopausal women.

### Author contributions

All authors made substantial contributions to the conception or design of the work; drafting the work or reviewing it critically for important intellectual content; and gave final approval of the version to be published. All authors agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved.

### Conflict of interest statement

Andrea R. Genazzani reports consulting fees from Mithra; payment or honoraria for lectures, presentations, speakers bureaus, manuscript writing or educational events from Organon, Exeltis, Gedeon Richter, Theramex, and Mithra. Tommaso Simoncini reports consulting fees from Abbott, Intuitive Surgical, Johnson and Johnson, Medtronic, Shionogi, and Astellas; payment or honoraria for lectures, presentations, speakers bureaus, manuscript writing or educational events from Abbott, Intuitive Surgery, Applied Medical, Gedeon Richter, Theramex, Shionogi and Vichy. All other authors report no conflicts of interest.

### References

1. Monteleone P, Mascagni G, Giannini A, Genazzani AR, Simoncini T. Symptoms of menopause global prevalence, physiology and implications. *Nat Rev Endocrinol*. 2018;14(4):199-215.
2. Levine ME, Lu AT, Chen BH, et al. Menopause accelerates biological aging. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2016;113(33):9327-9332.
3. Thurston RC, Carroll JE, Levine M, et al. Vasomotor symptoms and accelerated epigenetic aging in the Women's Health Initiative (WHI). *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2020;105(4):1221-1227.
4. Ambikairajah A, Walsh E, Cherbuin N. A review of menopause nomenclature. *Reprod Health*. 2022;19(1):29.
5. Gibson CJ, Thurston RC, El Khoudary SR, Sutton-Tyrrell K, Matthews KA. Body mass index following natural menopause and hysterectomy with and without bilateral oophorectomy. *Int J Obes (Lond)*. 2013;37(6):809-813.
6. Rocca WA, Bower JH, Maraganore DM, Ahlskog JE, Grossardt BR, de Andrade M, Melton LJ 3rd. Increased risk of cognitive impairment or dementia in women who underwent oophorectomy before menopause. *Neurology*. 2007;69(11):1074-1083.
7. Cusimano MC, Chiu M, Ferguson SE, et al. Association of bilateral salpingo-oophorectomy with all cause and cause specific mortality: population based cohort study. *BMJ*. 2021;375:e067528.
8. Rocca WA, Smith CY, Gazzuola Rocca L, Savica R, Mielke MM. Association of premenopausal bilateral oophorectomy with parkinsonism and Parkinson disease. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2022;5(10):e2238663.
9. Menopause WHO. 2022. Accessed October 17, 2022. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/menopause>
10. Collaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast Cancer. Menarche, menopause, and breast cancer risk: individual participant meta-analysis, including 118 964 women with breast cancer from 117 epidemiological studies. *Lancet Oncol*. 2012;13(11):1141-1151.
11. Matyi JM, Rattinger GB, Schwartz S, Buhusi M, Tschanz JT. Lifetime estrogen exposure and cognition in late life: the Cache County Study. *Menopause*. 2019;26(12):1366-1374.
12. Zhu D, Chung HF, Dobson AJ, et al. Age at natural menopause and risk of incident cardiovascular disease: a pooled analysis of individual patient data. *Lancet Public Health*. 2019;4(11):e553-e564.
13. Shieh A, Ruppert KM, Greendale GA, et al. Associations of age at menopause with postmenopausal bone mineral density and fracture risk in women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2022;107(2):e561-e569.
14. Politi MC, Schleinitz MD, Col NF. Revisiting the duration of vasomotor symptoms of menopause: a meta-analysis. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2008;23(9):1507-1513.
15. Avis NE, Crawford SL, Greendale G, et al. Duration of menopausal vasomotor symptoms over the menopause transition. *JAMA Intern Med*. 2015;175:531-539.

16. Zeleke BM, Bell RJ, Billah B, Davis S. Vasomotor and sexual symptoms in older Australian women: a cross-sectional study. *Fertil Steril*. 2016;105(1):149-155.
17. Pien GW, Sammel MD, Freeman EW, Lin H, DeBlasis TL. Predictors of sleep quality in women in the menopausal transition. *Sleep*. 2008;31(7):991-999.
18. Kravitz HM, Joffe H. Sleep during the perimenopause: a SWAN story. *Obstet Gynecol Clin North Am*. 2011;38(3):567-586.
19. Drogos LL, Rubin LH, Geller SE, Banuvar S, Shulman LP, Maki PM. Objective cognitive performance is related to subjective memory complaints in midlife women with moderate to severe vasomotor symptoms. *Menopause*. 2013;20(12):1236-1242.
20. Greendale GA, Huang MH, Wight RG, et al. Effects of the menopause transition and hormone use on cognitive performance in midlife women. *Neurology*. 2009;72(21):1850-1857.
21. Maki PM, Jaff NG. Brain fog in menopause: a healthcare professional's guide for decision-making and counseling on cognition. *Climacteric*. 2022;25(6):570-578.
22. Epperson CN, Sammel MD, Freeman EW. Menopause effects on verbal memory: findings from a longitudinal community cohort. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2013;98(9):3829-3838.
23. Fuh JL, Wang SJ, Lee SJ, Lu SR, Juang KD. A longitudinal study of cognition change during early menopausal transition in a rural community. *Maturitas*. 2006;53(4):447-453.
24. Karlamangla AS, Lachman ME, Han W, Huang M, Greendale GA. Evidence for cognitive aging in midlife women: study of women's health across the nation. *PLoS One*. 2017;12(1):e0169008.
25. Kurita K, Henderson VW, Gatz M, et al. Association of bilateral oophorectomy with cognitive function in healthy, postmenopausal women. *Fertil Steril*. 2016;106(3):749-756.e2.
26. Bromberger JT, Matthews KA, Schott LL, et al. Depressive symptoms during the menopausal transition: the Study of Women's Health Across the Nation (SWAN). *J Affect Disord*. 2007;103(1-3): 267-272.
27. Bromberger JT, Kravitz HM, Chang YF, Cyranowski JM, Brown C, Matthews KA. Major depression during and after the menopausal transition: Study of Women's Health Across the Nation (SWAN). *Psychol Med*. 2011;41(9):1879-1888.
28. Bromberger JT, Kravitz HM, Chang Y, et al. Does risk for anxiety increase during the menopausal transition? Study of Women's Health Across the Nation. *Menopause*. 2013;20(5):488-495.
29. Martin VT, Pavlovic J, Fanning KM, Buse DC, Reed ML, Lipton RB. Perimenopause and menopause are associated with high frequency headache in women with migraine: results of the American migraine prevalence and prevention study. *Headache*. 2016;56(2):292-305.
30. Davis SR, Castelo-Branco C, Chedraui P, et al. Understanding weight gain at menopause. *Climacteric*. 2012;15(5):419-429.
31. Sternfeld B, Wang H, Quesenberry CP Jr, et al. Physical activity and changes in weight and waist circumference in midlife women: findings from the Study of Women's Health Across the Nation. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2004;160(9):912-922.
32. Karvonen-Gutierrez C, Kim C. Association of mid-life changes in body size, body composition and obesity status with the menopausal transition. *Healthc Basel*. 2016;4(3):42.
33. Nappi RE, Chedraui P, Lambrinoudaki I, Simoncini T. Menopause: a cardiometabolic transition. *Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol*. 2022;10(6):442-456.
34. El Khoudary SR, Wildman RP, Matthews K, Thurston RC, Bromberger JT, Sutton-Tyrrell K. Progression rates of carotid intima-media thickness and adventitial diameter during the menopausal transition. *Menopause*. 2013;20(1):8-14.
35. Samargandy S, Matthews KA, Brooks MM, et al. Arterial stiffness accelerates within 1 year of the final menstrual period: the SWAN Heart Study. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2020;40(4):1001-1008.
36. Muka T, Oliver-Williams C, Kunutsor S, et al. Association of age at onset of menopause and time since onset of menopause with cardiovascular outcomes, intermediate vascular traits, and all-cause mortality: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA Cardiol*. 2016;1(7):767-776.
37. Avis NE, Colvin A, Karlamangla AS, et al. Change in sexual functioning over the menopausal transition: results from the Study of Women's Health Across the Nation. *Menopause*. 2017;24(4):379-390.
38. Nappi RE, Palacios S, Bruyniks N, Particco M, Panay N; EVES Study Investigators. The burden of vulvovaginal atrophy on women's daily living: implications on quality of life from a face-to-face real-life survey. *Menopause*. 2019;26(5):485-491.
39. Avis NE, Brockwell S, Randolph JF Jr, et al. Longitudinal changes in sexual functioning as women transition through menopause: results from the Study of Women's Health Across the Nation. *Menopause*. 2009;16(3):442-452.
40. Waetjen LE, Feng WY, Ye J, et al. Study of Women's Health Across the Nation (SWAN). Factors associated with worsening and improving urinary incontinence across the menopausal transition. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2008;111(3):667-677.
41. Finkelstein JS, Brockwell SE, Mehta V, et al. Bone mineral density changes during the menopause transition in a multiethnic cohort of women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2008;93(3):861-868.
42. Maltais ML, Desroches J, Dionne IJ. Changes in muscle mass and strength after menopause. *J Musculoskelet Neuronal Interact*. 2009;9(4):186-197.
43. Thurston RC, Johnson BD, Shufelt CL, et al. Menopausal symptoms and cardiovascular disease mortality in the Women's Ischemia Syndrome Evaluation (WISE). *Menopause*. 2017;24(2):126-132.
44. Thurston RC, Chang Y, von Känel R, et al. Sleep characteristics and carotid atherosclerosis among midlife women. *Sleep*. 2017;40(2):zsw052.
45. Joffe H, Crawford SL, Freeman MP, et al. Independent contributions of nocturnal hot flashes and sleep disturbance to depression in estrogen-deprived women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2016;101(10):3847-3855.
46. Ownby RL, Crocco E, Acevedo A, John V, Loewenstein D. Depression and risk for Alzheimer disease: systematic review, meta-analysis, and metaregression analysis. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2006;63(5):530-538.
47. Maki P, Thurston R. Menopause and brain health: hormonal changes are only part of the story. *Front Neurol*. 2020;11:562275.
48. Crandall CJ, Aragaki A, Cauley JA, et al. Associations of menopausal vasomotor symptoms with fracture incidence. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2015;100(2):524-534.
49. Holm M, Olsen A, Au Yeung SL, et al. Pattern of mortality after menopausal hormone therapy: long-term follow up in a population-based cohort. *BJOG*. 2019;126(1):55-63.
50. Brandts L, Poppel FWA, Brandt PA. Female reproductive factors and the likelihood of reaching the age of 90 years. The Netherlands Cohort Study. *Maturitas*. 2019;125:70-80.
51. Akter N, Kulinskaya E, Steel N, Bakbergenuly I. The effect of hormone replacement therapy on the survival of UK women: a retrospective cohort study 1984-2017. *BJOG*. 2022;129(6):994-1003.
52. MacLennan AH, Broadbent JI, Lester S, Moore V. Oral oestrogen and combined oestrogen/progesterone therapy versus placebo for hot flushes. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2004;2004(4):CD002978.
53. Santoro N, Allshouse A, Neal-Perry G, et al. Longitudinal changes in menopausal symptoms comparing women randomized to low-dose oral conjugated estrogens or transdermal estradiol plus micronized progesterone versus placebo: the Kronos Early Estrogen Prevention Study. *Menopause*. 2017;24(3):238-246.
54. Komm BS, Mirkin S, Jenkins SN. Development of conjugated estrogens/bazedoxifene, the first tissue selective estrogen complex (TSEC) for management of menopausal hot flashes and postmenopausal bone loss. *Steroids*. 2014;90:71-81.
55. Formoso G, Perrone E, Maltoni S, et al. Short-term and long-term effects of tibolone in postmenopausal women. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2016;10(10):CD008536.
56. Cintron D, Lahr BD, Bailey KR, et al. Effects of oral versus transdermal menopausal hormone treatments on self-reported sleep domains and their association with vasomotor symptoms in recently menopausal women enrolled in the Kronos Early Estrogen Prevention Study (KEEPS). *Menopause*. 2018;25(2):145-153.
57. Geiger PJ, Eisenlohr-Moul T, Gordon JL, Rubinow DR, Girdler SS. Effects of perimenopausal transdermal estradiol on self-reported sleep, independent of its effect on vasomotor symptom bother and depressive symptoms. *Menopause*. 2019;26(11):1318-1323.
58. Prior JC. Progesterone for treatment of symptomatic menopausal women. *Climacteric*. 2018;21(4):358-365.
59. Pan Z, Wen S, Qiao X, Yang M, Shen X, Xu L. Different regimens of menopausal hormone therapy for improving sleep quality: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Menopause*. 2022;29(5):627-635.
60. Pinkerton JV, Pan K, Abraham L, et al. Sleep parameters and health-related quality of life with bazedoxifene/conjugated estrogens: a randomized trial. *Menopause*. 2014;21(3):252-259.

61. Sharma A, Davies R, Kapoor A, Islam H, Webber L, Jayasena CN. The effect of hormone replacement therapy on cognition and mood. *Clin Endocrinol Oxf.* 2023;98(3):285-295.
62. Blümel JE, Artega E, Vallejo MS, et al. Association of bilateral oophorectomy and menopause hormone therapy with mild cognitive impairment: the REDLINC X study. *Climacteric.* 2022;25(2):195-202.
63. Saleh RNM, Hornberger M, Ritchie CW, Minihane AM. Hormone replacement therapy is associated with improved cognition and larger brain volumes in at-risk APOE4 women: results from the European Prevention of Alzheimer's Disease (EPAD) cohort. *Alzheimers Res Ther.* 2023;15(1):10.
64. Depypere H, Vergallo A, Lemercier P, et al. Menopause hormone therapy significantly alters pathophysiological biomarkers of Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimers Dement.* 2023;19(4):1320-1330.
65. Savolainen-Peltonen H, Rahkola-Soisalo P, Hoti F, et al. Use of postmenopausal hormone therapy and risk of Alzheimer's disease in Finland: nationwide case-control study. *BMJ.* 2019;364:l665.
66. Pourhadi N, March LS, Holm EA, Torp-Pedersen C, Meaidi A. Menopausal hormone therapy and dementia: nationwide, nested case-control study. *BMJ.* 2023;381:e072770.
67. Maki PM, Drogos LL, Rubin LH, Banuvar S, Shulman LP, Geller SE. Objective hot flashes are negatively related to verbal memory performance in midlife women. *Menopause.* 2008;15(5):848-856.
68. Fogel J, Rubin LH, Kilic E, Walega DR, Maki PM. Physiologic vasomotor symptoms are associated with verbal memory dysfunction in breast cancer survivors. *Menopause.* 2020;27(11):1209-1219.
69. Taylor HS, Tal A, Pal L, et al. Effects of oral vs transdermal estrogen therapy on sexual function in early postmenopause: ancillary study of the Kronos Early Estrogen Prevention Study (KEEPS). *JAMA Intern Med.* 2017;177(10):1471-1479.
70. Nijland EA, Weijmar Schultz WC, Nathorst-Boös J, et al. Tibolone and transdermal E2/NETA for the treatment of female sexual dysfunction in naturally menopausal women: results of a randomized active-controlled trial. *J Sex Med.* 2008;5(3):646-656.
71. Davis SR, Baber R, Panay N, et al. Global consensus position statement on the use of testosterone therapy for women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2019;104(10):4660-4666.
72. Parish SJ, Simon JA, Davis SR, et al. International Society for the Study of Women's sexual health clinical practice guideline for the use of systemic testosterone for hypoactive sexual desire disorder in women. *J Womens Health (Larchmt).* 2021;30(4):474-491.
73. Kingsberg SA, Faubion SS. Clinical management of hypoactive sexual desire disorder in postmenopausal women. *Menopause.* 2022;29(9):1083-1085.
74. Panay N, Anderson RA, Nappi RE, et al. Premature ovarian insufficiency: an International Menopause Society White Paper. *Climacteric.* 2020;23(5):426-446.
75. Scheffers CS, Armstrong S, Cantineau AE, Farquhar C, Jordan V. Dehydroepiandrosterone for women in the peri- or postmenopausal phase. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2015;1(1):CD011066.
76. Genazzani AR, Stomati M, Valentino V, et al. Effect of 1-year, low-dose DHEA therapy on climacteric symptoms and female sexuality. *Climacteric.* 2011;14(6):661-668.
77. Labrie F, Derogatis L, Archer DF, et al. Effect of intravaginal prasterone on sexual dysfunction in postmenopausal women with vulvovaginal atrophy. *J Sex Med.* 2015;12(12):2401-2412.
78. Rossouw JE, Anderson GL, Prentice RL, et al. Risks and benefits of estrogen plus progestin in healthy postmenopausal women: principal results from the Women's Health Initiative randomized controlled trial. *JAMA.* 2002;288(3):321-333.
79. Manson JE, Chlebowski RT, Stefanick ML, et al. Menopausal hormone therapy and health outcomes during the intervention and extended poststopping phases of the Women's Health Initiative randomized trials. *JAMA.* 2013;310(13):1353-1368.
80. Zhu L, Jiang X, Sun Y, Shu W. Effect of hormone therapy on the risk of bone fractures: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Menopause.* 2016;23(4):461-470.
81. Marjoribanks J, Farquhar C, Roberts H, Lethaby A, Lee J. Long-term hormone therapy for perimenopausal and postmenopausal women. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2017;1(1):CD004143.
82. Ettinger B. Tibolone for prevention and treatment of postmenopausal osteoporosis. *Maturitas.* 2007;57(1):35-38.
83. Rossouw JE, Prentice RL, Manson JE, et al. Postmenopausal hormone therapy and risk of cardiovascular disease by age and years since menopause. *JAMA.* 2007;297(13):1465-1477.
84. Schierbeck LL, Rejmark L, Tofteng CL, et al. Effect of hormone replacement therapy on cardiovascular events in recently postmenopausal women: randomised trial. *BMJ.* 2012;345:e6409.
85. Tuomikoski P, Mikkola TS. Postmenopausal hormone therapy and coronary heart disease in early postmenopausal women. *Ann Med.* 2014;46(1):1-7.
86. Savolainen-Peltonen H, Tuomikoski P, Korhonen P, et al. Cardiac death risk in relation to the age at initiation or the progestin component of hormone therapies. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2016;101(7):2794-2801.
87. Bhupathiraju SN, Grodstein F, Rosner BA, et al. Hormone therapy use and risk of chronic disease in the nurses' health study: a comparative analysis with the Women's Health Initiative. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2017;186(6):696-708.
88. Hou L, Li S, Zhu S, et al. Lifetime cumulative effect of reproductive factors on stroke and its subtypes in postmenopausal Chinese women: a prospective cohort study. *Neurology.* 2023;100(15):e1574-e1586.
89. Canonico M, Carcaillon L, Plu-Bureau G, et al. Postmenopausal hormone therapy and risk of stroke: impact of the route of estrogen administration and type of progestogen. *Stroke.* 2016;47(7):1734-1741.
90. Simon JA, Laliberté F, Duh MS, et al. Venous thromboembolism and cardiovascular disease complications in menopausal women using transdermal versus oral estrogen therapy. *Menopause.* 2016;23(6):600-610.
91. Crandall CJ, Hovey KM, Andrews C, et al. Comparison of clinical outcomes among users of oral and transdermal estrogen therapy in the Women's Health Initiative Observational Study. *Menopause.* 2017;24(10):1145-1153.
92. Shufelt CL, Merz CN, Prentice RL, et al. Hormone therapy dose, formulation, route of delivery, and risk of cardiovascular events in women: findings from the Women's Health Initiative Observational Study. *Menopause.* 2014;21(3):260-266.
93. Scarabin PY. Progestogens and venous thromboembolism in menopausal women: an updated oral versus transdermal estrogen meta-analysis. *Climacteric.* 2018;21(4):341-345.
94. Vinogradova Y, Coupland C, Hippisley-Cox J. Use of hormone replacement therapy and risk of venous thromboembolism: nested case-control studies using the QResearch and CPRD databases. *BMJ.* 2019;364:k4810.
95. Canonico M, Oger E, Plu-Bureau G, et al. Hormone therapy and venous thromboembolism among postmenopausal women: impact of the route of estrogen administration and progestogens: the ESTHER study. *Circulation.* 2007;115(7):840-845.
96. Cho L, Kaunitz AM, Faubion SS, et al. Rethinking menopausal hormone therapy: for whom, what, when, and how long? *Circulation.* 2023;147(7):597-610.
97. Cummings SR, Ettinger B, Delmas PD, et al. The effects of tibolone in older postmenopausal women. *N Engl J Med.* 2008;359(7):697-708.
98. Komm BS, Thompson JR, Mirkin S. Cardiovascular safety of conjugated estrogens plus bazedoxifene: meta-analysis of the SMART trials. *Climacteric.* 2015;18(4):503-511.
99. Margolis KL, Bonds DE, Rodabough RJ, et al. Effect of oestrogen plus progestin on the incidence of diabetes in postmenopausal women: results from the Women's Health Initiative Hormone Trial. *Diabetologia.* 2004;47(7):1175-1187.
100. Miller VM, Hodis HN, Lahr BD, Bailey KR, Jayachandran M. Changes in carotid artery intima-media thickness 3 years after cessation of menopausal hormone therapy: follow-up from the Kronos Early Estrogen Prevention Study. *Menopause.* 2019;26(1):24-31.
101. Lobo RA, Pinkerton JV, Gass MLS, et al. Evaluation of bazedoxifene/conjugated estrogens for the treatment of menopausal symptoms and effects on metabolic parameters and overall safety profile. *Fertil Steril.* 2009;92(3):1025-1038.
102. Manassiev N, Godsland IF, Proudler AJ, Whitehead MI, Stevenson JC. Effects of tibolone or continuous combined oestradiol/norethisterone acetate on glucose and insulin metabolism. *Clin Endocrinol Oxf.* 2013;78(2):297-302.
103. Chlebowski RT, Anderson GL, Aragaki AK, et al. Association of menopausal hormone therapy with breast cancer incidence and mortality during long-term follow-up of the Women's Health Initiative Randomized Clinical Trials. *JAMA.* 2020;324(4):369-380.
104. Yang Z, Hu Y, Zhang J, Xu L, Zeng R, Kang D. Estradiol therapy and breast cancer risk in perimenopausal and postmenopausal women: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Gynecol Endocrinol.* 2017;33(2):87-92.
105. Collaborative Group on Hormonal Factors in Breast Cancer. Type and timing of menopausal hormone therapy and breast cancer risk: individual

- participant meta-analysis of the worldwide epidemiological evidence. *Lancet*. 2019;394(10204):1159-1168.
106. Vinogradova Y, Coupland C, Hippisley-Cox J. Use of hormone replacement therapy and risk of breast cancer: nested case-control studies using the QResearch and CPRD databases. *BMJ*. 2020;371:m3873.
  107. Abenhaim HA, Suissa S, Azoulay L, Spence AR, Czujoz-Shulman N, Tulandi T. Menopausal hormone therapy formulation and breast cancer risk. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2022;139(6):1103-1110.
  108. Chlebowski RT, Rohan TE, Manson JE, et al. Breast cancer after use of estrogen plus progestin and estrogen alone: analyses of data from 2 Women's Health Initiative randomized clinical trials. *JAMA Oncol*. 2015;1(3):296-305.
  109. Mikkola TS, Savolainen-Peltonen H, Tuomikoski P, et al. Reduced risk of breast cancer mortality in women using postmenopausal hormone therapy: a Finnish nationwide comparative study. *Menopause*. 2016;23(11):1199-1203.
  110. O'Brien KM, Fei C, Sandler DP, Nichols HB, DeRoo LA, Weinberg CR. Hormone therapy and young-onset breast cancer. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2015;181(10):799-807.
  111. Baek JK, Kim HI, Kang MJ, Seon KE, Kim EH, Seo SK. Relationship between the type of hormone replacement therapy and incidence of breast cancer in Korea. *Climacteric*. 2022;25(5):516-522.
  112. Pinkerton JV, Harvey JA, Pan K, et al. Breast effects of bazedoxifene-conjugated estrogens: a randomized controlled trial. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2013;121(5):959-968.
  113. Peng L, Luo Q, Lu H. Efficacy and safety of bazedoxifene in postmenopausal women with osteoporosis. *Medicine (Baltimore)*. 2017;96(49):e8659.
  114. Gompel A. Progesterone and endometrial cancer. *Best Pract Res Clin Obstet Gynaecol*. 2020;69:95-107.
  115. Beral V, Bull D, Reeves G, Collaborators MWS. Endometrial cancer and hormone-replacement therapy in the million women study. *Lancet*. 2005;365(9470):1543-1551.
  116. Chlebowski RT, Anderson GL, Sarto GE, et al. Continuous combined estrogen plus progestin and endometrial cancer: the Women's Health Initiative randomized trial. *J Natl Cancer Inst*. 2015;108(3):d3v350.
  117. Løkkegaard ECL, Mørch LS. Tibolone and risk of gynecological hormone sensitive cancer. *Int J Cancer*. 2018;142(12):2435-2440.
  118. Beral V, Gaitskell K, Hermon C, et al. Menopausal hormone use and ovarian cancer risk: individual participant meta-analysis of 52 epidemiological studies. *Lancet*. 2015;385(9980):1835-1842.
  119. Gemmell LC, Webster KE, Kirtley S, Vincent K, Zondervan KT, Becker CM. The management of menopause in women with a history of endometriosis: a systematic review. *Hum Reprod Update*. 2017;23(4):481-500.
  120. Lee HJ, Lee B, Choi H, Kim T, Kim Y, Kim YB. Impact of hormone replacement therapy on risk of ovarian cancer in postmenopausal women with de novo endometriosis or a history of endometriosis. *Cancer*. 2023;15(6):1708.
  121. Goldstein I. Recognizing and treating urogenital atrophy in postmenopausal women. *J Womens Health*. 2010;19(3):425-443.
  122. Swanson SG, Drosman S, Helmond FA, Stathopoulos VM. Tibolone for the treatment of moderate to severe vasomotor symptoms and genital atrophy in postmenopausal women: a multicenter, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study. *Menopause*. 2006;13(6):917-925.
  123. Rahlkola-Soisalo P, Savolainen-Peltonen H, Gissler M, et al. Increased risk for stress urinary incontinence in women with postmenopausal hormone therapy. *Int Urogynecol J*. 2019;30(2):251-256.
  124. Christmas MM, Iyer S, Daisy C, Maristany S, Letko J, Hickey M. Menopause hormone therapy and urinary symptoms: a systematic review. *Menopause*. 2023;30(6):672-685.
  125. Rahlkola-Soisalo P, Savolainen-Peltonen H, Gissler M, et al. Postmenopausal hormone therapy is accompanied by elevated risk for uterine prolapse. *Menopause*. 2019;26(2):140-144.
  126. Di Donato V, Schiavi MC, Iacobelli V, et al. Ospemifene for the treatment of vulvar and vaginal atrophy: a meta-analysis of randomised trials. Part I: evaluation of efficacy. *Maturitas*. 2019;121:86-92.
  127. Di Donato V, Schiavi MC, Iacobelli V, et al. Ospemifene for the treatment of vulvar and vaginal atrophy: a meta-analysis of randomised trials. Part II: evaluation of tolerability and safety. *Maturitas*. 2019;121:93-100.
  128. Botteri E, Støer NC, Sakshaug S, et al. Menopausal hormone therapy and colorectal cancer: a linkage between nationwide registries in Norway. *BMJ Open*. 2017;7(11):e017639.
  129. Morois S, Fournier A, Clavel-Chapelon F, Mesrine S, Boutron- Ruault MC. Menopausal hormone therapy and risks of colorectal adenomas and cancers in the French E3N prospective cohort: true associations or bias? *Eur J Epidemiol*. 2012;27(6):439-452.
  130. Genazzani AR, Monteleone P, Giannini A, Simoncini T. Hormone therapy in the postmenopausal years: considering benefits and risks in clinical practice. *Hum Reprod Update*. 2021;27(6):1115-1150.
  131. Lethaby A, Ayeleke RO, Roberts H. Local oestrogen for vaginal atrophy in postmenopausal women. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2016;2016(8):CD001500.
  132. Cody JD, Jacobs ML, Richardson K, Moehrer B, Hextall A. Oestrogen therapy for urinary incontinence in postmenopausal women. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2012;10(10):CD001405.
  133. Buck ES, Lukas VA, Rubin RS. Effective prevention of recurrent UTIs with vaginal estrogen: pearls for a urological approach to genitourinary syndrome of menopause. *Urology*. 2021;151:31-36.
  134. Crandall CJ, Hovey KM, Andrews CA, et al. Breast cancer, endometrial cancer, and cardiovascular events in participants who used vaginal estrogen in the Women's Health Initiative observational study. *Menopause*. 2018;25(1):11-20.
  135. Mikkola TS, Tuomikoski P, Lyytinen H, et al. Vaginal estradiol use and the risk for cardiovascular mortality. *Hum Reprod*. 2016;31(4):804-809.
  136. Bhupathiraju SN, Grodstein F, Stampfer MJ, et al. Vaginal estrogen use and chronic disease risk in the nurses' health study. *Menopause*. 2018;26(6):603-610.
  137. The NAMS 2020 GSM Position Statement Editorial Panel. The 2020 genitourinary syndrome of menopause position statement of the North American Menopause Society. *Menopause*. 2020;27(9):976-992.
  138. Compounded Bioidentical Hormone Therapy 2019. Accessed October 02, 2019. <https://www.endocrine.org/advocacy/position-statements/compounded-bioidentical-hormone-therapy>
  139. Files JA, Ko MG, Pruthi S. Bioidentical hormone therapy. *Mayo Clin Proc*. 2011;86(7):673-680, quiz 680.
  140. Pinkerton JV. Concerns about compounded bioidentical menopausal hormone therapy. *Cancer J Sudbury Mass*. 2022;28(3):241-245.
  141. The North American Menopause Society Advisory Panel. The 2022 hormone therapy position statement of the North American Menopause Society. *Menopause*. 2022;29(7):767-794.
  142. Liu Y, Yuan Y, Day AJ, et al. Safety and efficacy of compounded bioidentical hormone therapy (cBHT) in perimenopausal and postmenopausal women: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials. *Menopause*. 2022;29(4):465-482.
  143. Cheek J, Lacy J, Toth-Fejel S, Morris K, Calhoun K, Pommier RF. The impact of hormone replacement therapy on the detection and stage of breast cancer. *Arch Surg*. 2002;137(9):1015-1019; discussion 1019-1021.
  144. ACOG committee opinion no. 734: the role of transvaginal ultrasonography in evaluating the endometrium of women with postmenopausal bleeding. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2018;131(5):e124-e129.
  145. Dreisler E. Postmenopausal bleeding: which endometrial thickness is safe in menopausal hormone. *Case Report in Women's Health*. 2022;35:e00431.
  146. Saccardi C, Spagnol G, Bonaldo G, Marchetti M, Tozzi R, Noventa M. New light on endometrial thickness as a risk factor of cancer: what do clinicians need to know? *Cancer Manag Res*. 2022;14:1331-1340.
  147. Woodward MJ, Lu CW, Levandowski R, Kostis J, Bachmann G. The exercise prescription for enhancing overall health of midlife and older women. *Maturitas*. 2015;82(1):65-71.
  148. Henson J, Davies MJ, Bodicoat DH, et al. Breaking up prolonged sitting with standing or walking attenuates the postprandial metabolic response in postmenopausal Women: a randomized acute study. *Diabetes Care*. 2016;39(1):130-138.
  149. Kistler-Fischbacher M, Weeks BK, Beck BR. The effect of exercise intensity on bone in postmenopausal women (part 2): a meta-analysis. *Bone*. 2021;143:115697.
  150. Marín-Cascales E, Alcaraz PE, Ramos-Campo DJ, Rubio-Arias JA. Effects of multicomponent training on lean and bone mass in postmenopausal and older women: a systematic review. *Menopause*. 2018;25(3):346-356.
  151. Hirahatake KM, Jiang L, Wong ND, et al. Diet quality and cardiovascular disease risk in postmenopausal women with type 2 diabetes mellitus: the Women's Health Initiative. *J Am Heart Assoc*. 2019;8(19):e013249.
  152. Wang D, Jackson EA, Karvonen-Gutierrez CA, et al. Healthy lifestyle during the midlife is prospectively associated with less subclinical carotid atherosclerosis: the Study of Women's Health Across the Nation. *J Am Heart Assoc*. 2018;7(23):e010405.

153. Wiggs AG, Chandler JK, Aktas A, Sumner SJ, Stewart DA. The effects of diet and exercise on endogenous estrogens and subsequent breast cancer risk in postmenopausal women. *Front Endocrinol Lausanne*. 2021;12:732255.
154. Sánchez-Sánchez ML, García-Vigara A, Hidalgo-Mora JJ, García-Pérez MÁ, Tarín J, Cano A. Mediterranean diet and health: a systematic review of epidemiological studies and intervention trials. *Maturitas*. 2020;136:25-37.
155. Brandt PA, Schulpen M. Mediterranean diet adherence and risk of postmenopausal breast cancer: results of a cohort study and meta-analysis. *Int J Cancer*. 2017;140(10):2220-2231.
156. Dinh PC, Schrader LA, Svensson CJ, Margolis KL, Silver B, Luo J. Smoking cessation, weight gain, and risk of stroke among postmenopausal women. *Prev Med*. 2019;118:184-190.
157. Ding M, Fitzmaurice GM, Arvizu M, et al. Associations between patterns of modifiable risk factors in mid-life to late life and longevity: 36 year prospective cohort study. *BMJ Med*. 2022;1(1):e000098.
158. Foubert-Samier A, Le Goff M, Helmer C, et al. Change in leisure and social activities and risk of dementia in elderly cohort. *J Nutr Health Aging*. 2014;18(10):876-882.
159. Hyypää MT, Mäki J, Impivaara O, Aromaa A. Leisure participation predicts survival: a population-based study in Finland. *Health Promot Int*. 2006;21(1):5-12.
160. Fancourt D, Steptoe A. The art of life and death: 14 year follow-up analyses of associations between arts engagement and mortality in the English longitudinal study of ageing. *BMJ*. 2019;367:l6377.
161. Scarmeas N, Levy G, Tang MX, Manly J, Stern Y. Influence of leisure activity on the incidence of Alzheimer's disease. *Neurology*. 2001;57(12):2236-2242.
162. Weziak-Bialowolska D, Bialowolski P, Sacco PL. Mind-stimulating leisure activities: prospective associations with health, wellbeing, and longevity. *Front Public Health*. 2023;11:1117822.
163. Sommerlad A, Sabia S, Livingston G, Kivimäki M, Lewis G, Singh-Manoux A. Leisure activity participation and risk of dementia: an 18-year follow-up of the Whitehall II study. *Neurology*. 2020;95(20):e2803-e2815.
164. Harlow SD, Gass M, Hall JE, et al. Executive summary of the Stages of Reproductive Aging Workshop + 10: addressing the unfinished agenda of staging reproductive aging. *Menopause*. 2012;19(4):387-395.