

1 **COVID-19 vaccination and menstrual cycle changes: A**  
2 **United Kingdom (UK) retrospective case-control study**

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## 34 Abstract

35 **Background.** There has been increasing public concern that COVID-19 vaccines cause  
36 menstrual cycle disturbances, yet there is currently limited data to evaluate the impact of  
37 vaccination on menstrual health. Our objectives were (1) to evaluate the prevalence of  
38 menstrual changes following vaccination against COVID-19, (2) to test potential risk factors  
39 for any such changes, and (3) to identify patterns of symptoms in participants' written accounts.

40 **Methods.** We performed a secondary analysis of a retrospective online survey titled “The  
41 Covid-19 Pandemic and Women's Reproductive Health”, conducted in March 2021 in the UK  
42 before widespread media attention regarding potential impacts of SARS-CoV-2 vaccination on  
43 menstruation. Participants were recruited via a Facebook ad campaign in the UK and eligibility  
44 criteria for survey completion were age greater than 18 years, having ever menstruated and  
45 currently living in the UK. In total, 26,710 people gave consent and completed the survey. For  
46 this analysis we selected 4,989 participants who were pre-menopausal and vaccinated. These  
47 participants were aged 28 to 43, predominantly from England (81%), of white background  
48 (95%) and not using hormonal contraception (58%).

49 **Findings.** Among pre-menopausal vaccinated individuals (n=4,989), 80% did not report any  
50 menstrual cycle changes up to 4 months after their first COVID-19 vaccine injection. Current  
51 use of combined oral contraceptives was associated with lower odds of reporting any changes  
52 by 48% (OR = 0.52, 95CI = [0.34 to 0.78],  $P < 0.001$ ). Odds of reporting any menstrual changes  
53 were increased by 44% for current smokers (OR = 1.44, 95CI = [1.07 to 1.94],  $P < 0.01$ ) and by  
54 more than 50% for individuals with a positive COVID status [Long Covid (OR = 1.61, 95CI =  
55 [1.28 to 2.02],  $P < 0.001$ ), acute COVID (OR = 1.54, 95CI = [1.27 to 1.86],  $P < 0.001$ )]. The  
56 effects remain after adjusting for self-reported magnitude of menstrual cycle changes over the  
57 year preceding the survey. Written accounts report diverse symptoms; the most common words  
58 include “cramps”, “late”, “early”, “spotting”, “heavy” and “irregular”, with a low level of  
59 clustering among them.

60 **Conclusions.** Following vaccination for COVID-19, menstrual disturbance occurred in 20% of  
61 individuals in a UK sample. Out of 33 variables investigated, smoking and a previous history  
62 of SARS-CoV-2 infection were found to be risk factors while using oestradiol-containing  
63 contraceptives was found to be a protective factor. Diverse experiences were reported, from  
64 menstrual bleeding cessation to heavy menstrual bleeding.

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## 66 **Introduction**

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69 There has been increasing public concern that COVID-19 vaccines cause disruption of  
70 menstrual cycles [1–3], leading to problematic menstrual symptoms, vaccine hesitancy [4] and  
71 fears about the impact of vaccination on fertility [5–7]. There are currently limited data [8] for  
72 investigating the relationship between the COVID-19 vaccines and menstrual cycles [1,9,10].  
73 This is despite rising awareness among clinicians that the menstrual cycle should be used as a  
74 vital sign of female health [11,12], that sex is a biological variable which should be considered  
75 in immunological studies [13] and that there have been reports of heavy, infrequent or irregular  
76 menstrual bleeding following vaccination [1,8–10]. Quantitative evidence for any such  
77 relationship between COVID-19 vaccination and menstrual cycle disturbance, as well as the  
78 factors mediating this relationship, are crucial for evaluating how female health has been  
79 impacted by the pandemic.

80

81 The first published study on the topic of vaccine effects on menstrual cycles dates back to 1913,  
82 when a medical doctor at the Presbyterian Hospital, New York, concluded that there was a  
83 striking relationship between the prophylactic typhoid vaccine and menstrual disturbances  
84 among one hundred cases [14]. After ruling out all other apparent causes, he found that 53%  
85 showed some type of disturbance, including increased or decreased frequency, increased or  
86 decreased volume and dysmenorrhoea [14]. These disturbances disappeared within 6 months  
87 of the vaccine, suggesting that any such vaccine side-effect was temporary. There has also been  
88 a report of menstrual disturbances following inoculation with the hepatitis vaccine in a Japanese  
89 study conducted in 1982. Among 16 hospital employees, 7 reported various menstrual  
90 abnormalities including decreased volume of menstruation, infrequent or too frequent menses

91 [15]. The changes were attributed to the use of human plasma to make the vaccine (antigens  
92 were derived from human plasma, containing hormonal impurities). More recently, large-scale  
93 studies on the effects of vaccination on menstrual disturbances reported mixed results. A 2018  
94 study of 29,846 female residents of Nagoya City, Japan, found that none of the 24 symptoms  
95 investigated, including menstrual symptoms, were associated with increased odds of occurring  
96 after administration of the HPV vaccine. However, age-adjusted odds of hospital visits were  
97 increased for “abnormal amount of menstrual bleeding” (OR=1.43, 95%CI=[1.13 to 1.82]),  
98 “irregular menstruation” (OR=1.29, 95%CI=[1.12 to 1.49]) and chronic, persisting “abnormal  
99 amount of menstrual bleeding” (OR 1.41, 95% CI: 1.11–1.79)[16]. Although retrospective and  
100 sensitive to recall bias among those receiving the vaccine, the study suggests a possible link  
101 between the HPV vaccine and menstrual irregularities. Another study applying a signal  
102 detection analysis on the FDA Vaccine Adverse Event Reporting System (VAERS) shows a  
103 disproportionate number of reports of premature ovarian insufficiency, amenorrhea, irregular  
104 menstruation, increase in FSH and premature menopause following administration of the HPV  
105 vaccine [17]. However, the evidence is non-causal, and relationships might depend on the type  
106 of vaccine. With regards to COVID-19, the UK’s Medicine and Healthcare products Regulatory  
107 Agency (MHRA) is closely monitoring reports of menstrual disorders [18], with more than  
108 30,000 reports made to its yellow card surveillance scheme by 2 September 2021 for both  
109 mRNA and adenovirus-vectored COVID-19 vaccines [19]. Recent data from a gender-diverse  
110 sample receiving COVID-19 vaccination in the US suggests that changes in the form of heavy  
111 and breakthrough bleeding affect many people. However, there has been no quantitative  
112 assessment of the risk factors for menstrual disturbances following COVID-19 vaccination  
113 prior to widespread media attention ([8], Box 1).

114

## 115 **Objectives of the study**

116 The objectives of this study are three-fold: (1) to evaluate the incidence of reports of menstrual  
117 changes of any kind following COVID-19 vaccination in a sample broadly representative of  
118 those who menstruate in the UK, (2) to investigate the risk factors for reporting any menstrual  
119 changes following COVID-19 vaccination, and (3) to capture the types and breadth of menstrual  
120 disturbances by analysing the text written by participants. We build on a large retrospective  
121 cross-sectional study on menstruation during the pandemic conducted in the UK, launched  
122 before UK media coverage of concerns over menstrual vaccine side-effects and including both  
123 quantitative and textual data on menstrual cycle changes perceived to be induced by the  
124 COVID-19 vaccines.

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## 126 **Methods**

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### 129 **Study design**

130 The online survey was initially designed to evaluate whether and how the COVID-19 pandemic  
131 influenced menstrual health. Retrospective and self-reported data on menstrual cycles,  
132 behaviour, life circumstances and health before and during the pandemic as well as SARS-  
133 CoV-2 infection and vaccination status were collected using an online survey hosted on the  
134 Qualtrics platform ([www.qualtrics.com](http://www.qualtrics.com)). All survey responses were anonymized using  
135 randomly generated IDs. The study, titled “The Covid-19 Pandemic and Women's Reproductive  
136 Health” has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the Oxford University  
137 School of Anthropology and Museum Ethnography Departmental Research Ethics Committee  
138 [SAME\_C1A\_20\_029].

139

## 140 **Patient and Public Involvement**

141 During the design of survey questions, input from a panel of women suffering from Long Covid,  
142 referred to us by the Long Covid Support online group (<https://www.longcovid.org/>), was  
143 incorporated. The results were discussed with panel members who were also invited to co-  
144 author the paper and co-design dissemination plans.

145

## 146 **Study population**

147 The online survey was launched on March 8, 2021. The title of the survey was kept general  
148 (“female reproductive health and the COVID pandemic”) so as not to oversample individuals  
149 with specific interest in menstrual cycles and COVID infection or vaccination. The survey was  
150 disseminated through a Facebook advertising campaign, and included images of women of  
151 diverse ethnicities, ages, and abilities, as well as images of breastfeeding and pregnant women  
152 (SI1); we fine-tuned the ad targeting (to the extent that Facebook allows) throughout the  
153 campaign to ensure even geographical and socio-economic spread. As explained in the  
154 information page (SI2), participants could only complete the survey if they were over 18, had  
155 ever menstruated, currently lived in the UK, and gave informed consent to the use of their data.  
156 The survey included a maximum of 105 questions depending on individual circumstances (SI3)  
157 and took an average of 24 minutes to complete. Of the eligible participants who started the  
158 survey, 61% answered all questions after giving their consent (on average participants  
159 completed 80% of the questionnaire). In case of survey fatigue, progress could be saved for up  
160 to 14 days to allow participants to resume later. The survey was disseminated through a  
161 Facebook advertisement campaign targeting all menstruators in the UK, from 08/03/21 to  
162 01/06/21, at which point there had been no new entries for a week. During the campaign, we  
163 used a stratified sampling strategy to ensure that subgroups of the UK population in terms of

164 age, income and ethnicity were represented in the final sample. In total, 695,543 people viewed  
165 the survey ad on their Facebook page and 26,710 with eligible criteria gave consent and  
166 completed it (there were no duplicates), leading to a 3.8% response rate. The data, data  
167 dictionary and scripts are available on the Open Science Framework Platform  
168 (<https://osf.io/pqxy2/>).

169

### 170 **Outcome: vaccine side-effects on menstrual cycles**

171 While the survey did not initially aim to evaluate the impact of vaccination on menstrual cycles  
172 specifically, a question was included to assess participants' perception of their menstrual cycles  
173 following vaccination at the end of the survey. Specifically, participants who indicated that they  
174 had been menstruating in the past 12 months, received 1 or 2 doses of the COVID-19 vaccines  
175 and were not involved in a clinical trial were asked "*Have you noticed any changes to your*  
176 *menstrual cycles since you got vaccinated?*", to which 1 of 4 possible answers could be given:  
177 "No", "Yes, my menstrual cycles are MORE disrupted", "Yes, my menstrual cycles are LESS  
178 disrupted", "Other (please state)". Although "disruption" per se was not defined, by the time  
179 participants answered this question, they had already completed many questions on menstrual  
180 cycle regularity, duration, and symptoms. At the time of the survey design, anecdotal reports of  
181 menstrual effects of the vaccine were only just beginning to circulate, while people with Long  
182 Covid were reporting either improvement or worsening of their symptoms in general after  
183 vaccination. This question was included with the intention of investigating the latter effects.  
184 Participants could select the answer "Other", which in some cases may not have been a different  
185 decision from choosing either "more disrupted" or "less disrupted". For analysis, we thus  
186 transformed these variables to represent a binary outcome ("No changes" vs. "Any other  
187 changes").

188

## 189 **Exposures**

190 A total of 33 variables were extracted for this analysis. In addition to socio-demographic  
191 variables (age, income, education, gender, ethnic group, marital status), and standard proxies  
192 for health (BMI, smoking status, physical activity, regular use of vitamins/supplements, regular  
193 use of medicine), the dataset included vaccine-related, COVID and pandemic-related, and  
194 reproductive variables (See SI4 for the operationalization of variables). First, data on the type  
195 of vaccine received, of which only two had been approved for use in the UK at the time (Pfizer  
196 BioNTech/Oxford-AstraZeneca/Not sure), and the timing of the first vaccination (month/year)  
197 were included. Second, COVID status was operationalized in two ways: (i) based on whether  
198 people thought they had had COVID, as widespread testing had not been available in the UK  
199 in the early months of the pandemic which fell within the survey period, leading to three  
200 categories: *No COVID*, *acute COVID* (symptoms lasting less than 28 days) and *Long Covid*  
201 (symptoms lasting more than 28 days) as well as (ii) based on a combination of testing and self-  
202 diagnosis, leading to three categories: *No COVID* (no tests or negative tests), *COVID tested +*  
203 (positive test) and “*Self-diagnosed positive*” (referring to individuals who had a suspected or  
204 clinically diagnosed COVID infection but had not obtained positive PCR, antigen or antibody  
205 tests). We included this last category due to the unavailability of widespread testing in the UK  
206 in the first wave of the pandemic in 2020 and ongoing questions about the accuracy and optimal  
207 timing of antigen and antibody tests. In addition, variables indicative of changes in both life  
208 satisfaction and menstrual cycle symptoms compared to before the pandemic were also included  
209 to adjust for changes experienced because of the pandemic and/or the infection rather than  
210 vaccination. Third, reproductive variables indicative of menstrual health before the pandemic



211 (age at menarche, cycle length, period length, cycle irregularity, heavy bleeding), reproductive  
212 history (number of deliveries) and contraceptive use were included.

213

#### 214 **Statistical analysis**

215 The aim of the quantitative analysis was two-fold: (1) to quantify the extent to which individuals  
216 answered “No changes” when asked about any perceived changes to their menstrual cycle  
217 following COVID-19 vaccination, and (2) to evaluate potential risk and protective factors for  
218 selecting any other answer. The original outcome variable is nominal (two or more categories  
219 with no intrinsic order) but violates the IIA assumption (Independence or Irrelevant  
220 Alternatives) as options were not independent, thus we dichotomized the variable into two  
221 mutually exclusive categories (“No changes”, “Any other changes”) and performed logistic  
222 regressions. We first conducted a series of exploratory univariable analyses, investigating each  
223 of 33 variables as potential risk factors for reporting changes in menstrual cycles following  
224 vaccination. We then retained all variables significant at the false discovery rate (FDR)  
225 threshold (FDR-corrected  $P < 0.05$ ) [20] for consideration in multivariable analyses. We then  
226 conducted separate multivariable analyses with each of the variables identified in the  
227 univariable analyses as exposures variables. Each multivariable model was adjusted for  
228 potential confounders, which were defined as variables significant at the FDR threshold in the  
229 univariable analyses and with a potential confounding (but not mediating) effect according to  
230 hypothesized directed acyclic graphs (DAG, SI5). Estimates and confidence intervals on the  
231 log-odds scale were converted to odds-ratios for reporting. To test the significance of individual  
232 coefficients, p-values were derived from Wald  $\chi^2$  statistics. For all models, we plotted a receiver  
233 operating characteristic curve (ROC) and computed a measure of the accuracy of the chosen  
234 model in predicting the outcome using the area under the curve (AUC). As an alternative way

235 of selecting covariates for the multivariable models, and to improve model prediction accuracy,  
236 we also performed LASSO regression using the “*glmnet*” package in R [21]. As the range and  
237 scale of variables can influence the penalization for having too many variables in elastic net  
238 models, all ordinal variables were coded numerically and re-classed as continuous, and all  
239 continuous variables were centered and standardized. Nominal categorical variables were  
240 broken out into individual binary dummy variables for all response levels except for the  
241 reference level.

242

### 243 **Missing data**

244 The analysis of complete cases only can introduce bias and lead to a substantial reduction of  
245 statistical power [22], especially if it is plausible that the data are missing at random or not  
246 completely at random. An evaluation of the missing data suggested that multiple imputation  
247 was advisable (SI6). The average proportion of missing values across all variables in the dataset  
248 was 3.8%, which was mostly accounted for by the variable BMI (38% of missing data, SI6). To  
249 handle missing data, we used a multiple imputation approach using the R package ‘*missRanger*’  
250 [23], which combines random forest imputation with predictive mean matching [23]. Prior to  
251 all analyses, we imputed 5 datasets, with a maximum of 10 iterations specified for each  
252 imputation. Each imputation was also weighted by the degree of missing data for each  
253 participant, such that the contribution of data from participants with higher proportions of  
254 missingness was weighted down in the imputation. We set the maximum number of trees for  
255 the random forest to 200 but left all other random forest hyperparameters at their default. The  
256 average out-of-bag (OOB) error rate for multiple imputation across all imputed datasets was  
257 0.08 in women (range: 0 to 0.77) and 0.08 in men (range: 0 to 0.69). Parameter estimates for

258 all five datasets were pooled to provide more accurate estimates. A sensitivity analysis was also  
259 performed on the complete cases without missing data imputation (n=1,548 (SI7)).

## 260 261 **Text analysis**

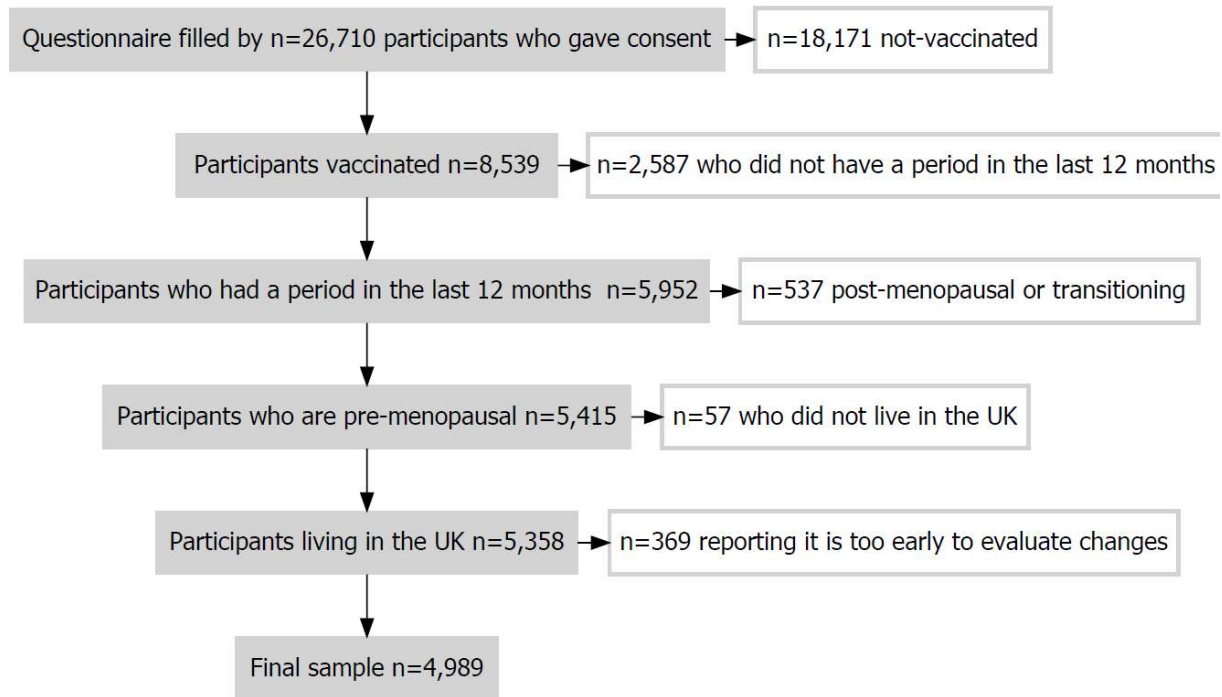
262 We first built a custom text cleaning function using the *'textclean'* [24] and *'tidytext'* [25] R  
263 packages to analyse the text written by participants selecting the “Other” category in the  
264 outcome variable (n=574). The resulting corpus was tokenized (broken into individual units)  
265 and lemmatized (words derived from others, such as “vaccine” and “vaccination” were grouped  
266 by their stem version “vaccine” (SI8). The corpus was analysed to answer the following 3  
267 questions: (i) which single words (unigrams) and pairs of adjacent words (bigrams) are most  
268 frequent? (ii) which words co-occur in the same sentence? (iii) Are there clusters of symptoms?  
269 To investigate the commonality of words, we explored the frequency of unigrams and bigrams  
270 within all responses. We performed a correlation analysis on the most important words for  
271 menstrual cycle descriptions to measure the association between words using the correlation  
272 index (phi coefficient ( $\phi$ )). To explore patterns of symptoms we examined the words that  
273 commonly occur together (though not necessarily adjacent) to visualize groups of words that  
274 cluster together. Clusters were visualized by arranging correlated words into a combination of  
275 connected nodes (network graph) using the *'igraph'* package [26].

## 276 277 **Results**

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280 Out of the 26,710 individuals who completed the survey, 8,539 (32%) reported having been  
281 vaccinated, with either 1 (n=7,270) or 2 doses (n=1,269). In the final sample, we only included  
282 individuals living in the UK who knew about their vaccination status, who had a period in the  
283 last 12 months and who were also pre-menopausal and not pregnant. We also excluded

284 participants who selected “Other changes” and contributed text to the effect of “too early to  
285 say” when describing menstrual disturbances following COVID-19 vaccination (n=369, 64%  
286 of those selecting the answer “Other changes”) (Fig. 1)

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292 **Figure 1. Flowchart of the study population selection**

293

294 The final sample size of vaccinated individuals is 4,989, of which 53% received the Oxford-  
295 AstraZeneca and 47% the Pfizer BioNTech vaccine (Table 1). The median age is 35 (IQR: 28  
296 to 43) years old, with most participants living in England (81%), self-reporting as white (95%)  
297 and self-identifying as women (99%). We then grouped categories for the variables gender  
298 (women vs. other) and ethnic group (white vs. other). Although the UK vaccination campaign  
299 targeted older and at-risk populations to begin with, there does not seem to be an over-  
300 representation of over 40-year-olds. Note that 54% of participants had no deliveries and 49%  
301 had a university or college degree.

302

Characteristic	N = 4,989
<b>Age, Median (IQR)</b>	35 (28 – 43)
<b>Education level, n (%)</b>	
Higher or secondary or further education (A-levels, BTEC, Baccalaureate)	851 (17)
Primary & Secondary	303 (6.2)
Post-graduate degree	1,324 (27)
College or University	2,395 (49)
Unknown	116
<b>Place of residence, n (%)</b>	
UK-England	4,031 (81)
UK-Northern Ireland	159 (3.2)
UK-Scotland	542 (11)
UK-Wales	257 (5.2)
<b>Ethnic group, n (%)</b>	
White	4,734 (95)
Asian	113 (2.3)
Black	21 (0.4)
Mixed	101 (2.0)
Other	18 (0.4)
Unknown	2
<b>Net income before pandemic, n (%)</b>	
Between £13,682 and £22,140	656 (15)
Between £22,140 and £29,254	614 (14)
Between £29,254 and £39,397	795 (18)
Between £39,397 and £76,144	1,453 (33)
Less than £13,682	430 (9.8)
More than £76,144	427 (9.8)
Unknown	614
<b>Smoking status before pandemic, n (%)</b>	
I have never smoked	3,327 (67)
No, but I have smoked in the past	1,157 (23)
Yes, I usually smoked fewer than 10 cigarettes/day	334 (6.7)
Yes, I usually smoked more than 10 cigarettes/day	170 (3.4)
Unknown	1
<b>Marital status, n (%)</b>	
Separated	348 (7.2)
Married/partnered	2,033 (42)
Nevermarried/partnered	2,449 (50)
Widowed	27 (0.6)
Unknown	132
<b>Gender, n (%)</b>	
Man	1 (<0.1)
Non Binary	24 (0.5)
Other (please state)	22 (0.4)
Woman	4,939 (99)
Unknown	3
<b>Number of deliveries, n (%)</b>	
0	2,694 (54)
1	693 (14)
2	1,017 (20)
3+	584 (12)
Unknown	1
<b>Contraceptive use at the time of the survey, n (%)</b>	
Combined estradiol-progestin	441 (11)
Copper IUD	225 (5.4)
None	2,421 (58)
Other	84 (2.0)
Progestin only	854 (21)
Sterilization	130 (3.1)
Unknown	834
<b>COVID status (type), n (%)</b>	
COVID -	3,377 (75)
Long COVID	462 (10)
Short COVID	687 (15)
Unknown	463
<b>COVID status (diagnosis), n (%)</b>	

Characteristic	N = 4,989
Negative	3,377 (76)
Self diagnosed +	395 (8.9)
Tested +	671 (15)
Unknown	546
<b>Number of vaccination shots, n (%)</b>	
Yes, one shot	4,096 (82)
Yes, two shots	893 (18)
<b>Vaccine type, n (%)</b>	
Oxford-AstraZeneca	2,600 (53)
Pfizer-BioNTech	2,335 (47)
Unknown	54
<b>Timing of 1st dose, n (%)</b>	
Before 2021	331 (6.7)
February 2021	1,469 (30)
January 2021	1,497 (30)
March 2021	1,659 (33)
Unknown	33

303 **Table 1.** Summary of the sample characteristics

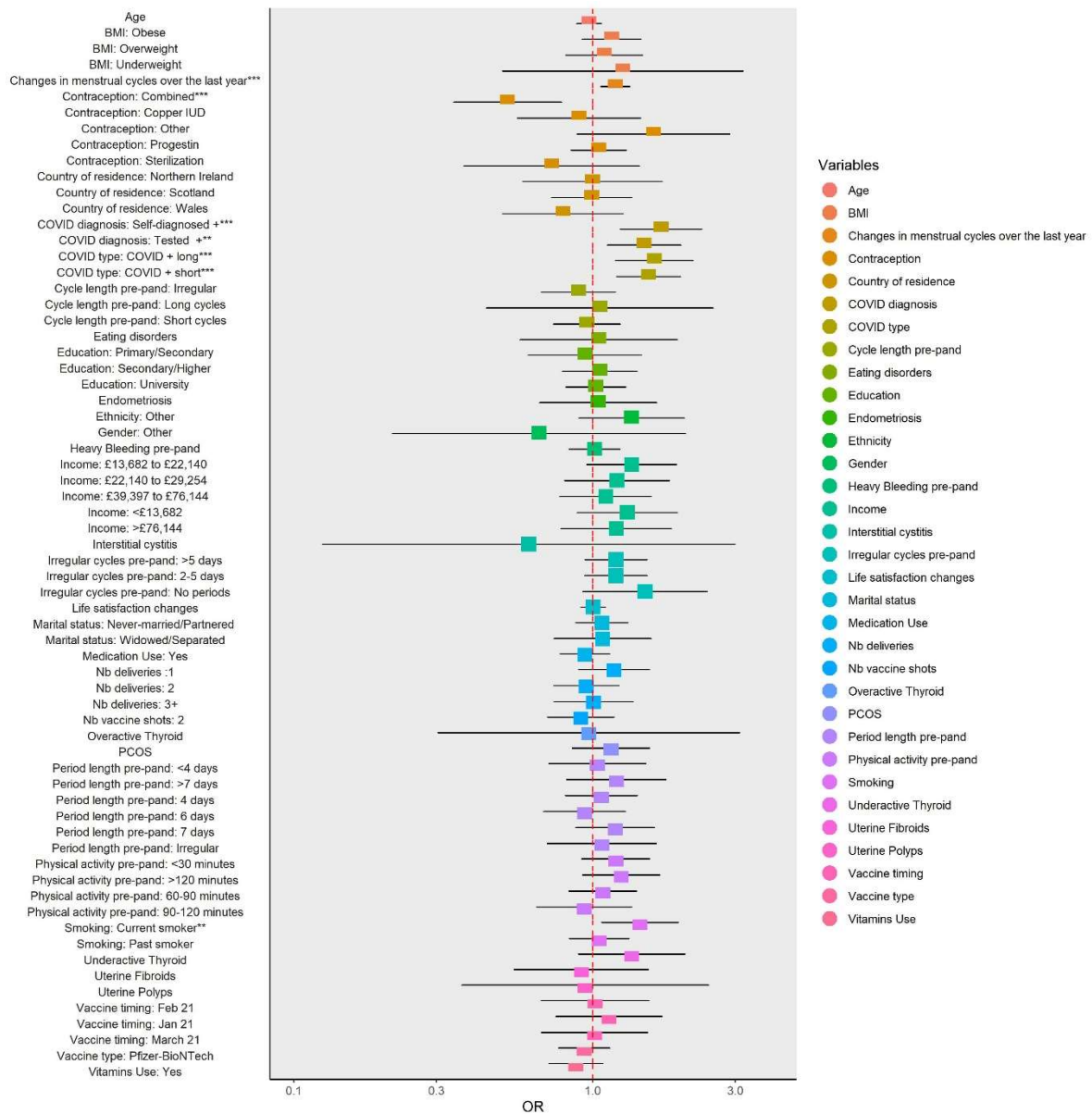
304  
305

306 **Risk factors for COVID-19 vaccine-related changes in menstrual cycles**

307 Most individuals reported no changes to their menstrual cycles following COVID-19  
308 vaccination (80%). Only 6.1% reported more disruption, 1.5% reported less disruption and  
309 11.5% reported “Other changes”, which, based on the previous questions participants were  
310 exposed to, could be interpreted as any changes in cycle length and regularity, period duration  
311 and volume of menstrual bleeding as well as premenstrual symptoms.

312

313 The univariable analyses show that the odds of reporting any changes to menstrual cycles after  
314 COVID-19 vaccination is associated with contraceptive type, smoking behaviour, COVID  
315 status and menstrual cycle changes over the last year (Fig. 2). All univariable models offered  
316 poor discriminative utility (AUC below 0.65, SI9). There were no differences associated with  
317 age, body mass index, ethnic group, gender, marital status, physical activity, income, education,  
318 place of residence, cycle length, period length, irregular cycles, heavy bleeding, vaccine type,  
319 vaccine timing, parity, life satisfaction changes, medication use, use of vitamins/supplements,  
320 endometriosis, PCOS, thyroid disease, uterine polyps, uterine fibroids, inter cystitis and eating  
321 disorders (Fig. 2; SI10).



322

323 **Figure 2. Outputs of univariable models for the odds of reporting any menstrual cycle changes**

324 **following COVID-19 vaccination.** The figure depicts odds-ratio and 99%CI for 33 variables. \*\*: FDR P-value < 0.01; \*\*\* FDR P-value < 0.001.

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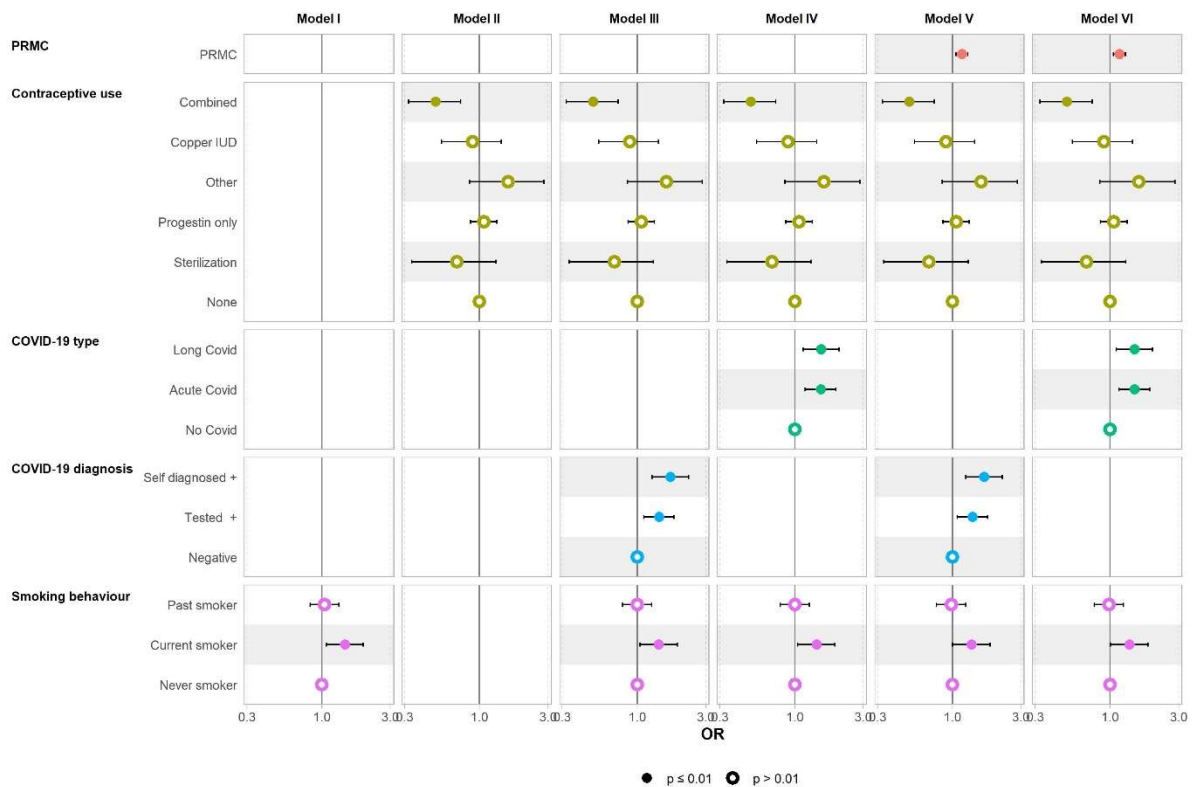
327 The multivariable analyses show that the usage of combined oral contraceptives is associated

328 with lower odds of reporting any changes by 48% (OR=0.52, 95CI=[0.34 to 0.78],  $P<0.001$ )

329 while the odds of reporting any changes is increased by 44% (OR=1.44, 95CI=[1.07 to 1.94]

330 for current smokers,  $P<0.01$ ) and by 49 to 70% for individuals with a positive COVID status

331 [Long Covid (OR=1.61, 95CI=[1.28 to 2.02],  $P<0.001$ ), acute COVID (OR=1.54; 95CI=[1.27  
 332 to 1.86],  $P<0.001$ ); self-diagnosed positive (OR=1.70, 95CI=[1.34 to 2.16],  $P<0.001$ ), tested  
 333 positive (OR=1.49, 95CI=[1.20 to 1.84],  $P<0.01$ ), Figs 3 & 4, SI11]. The effects remain after  
 334 adjusting for self-reported overall magnitude of menstrual cycle changes over the year  
 335 preceding the interview (pandemic-related changes in menstrual cycle (PRCM)), which is  
 336 positively associated with the risk of reporting any changes (OR=1.16, 95CI=[1.06 to 1.26],  
 337  $P<0.01$ ). The findings were replicated when using complete cases data (SI7), indicating that the  
 338 results are not an artefact of the missing data imputation process.  
 339

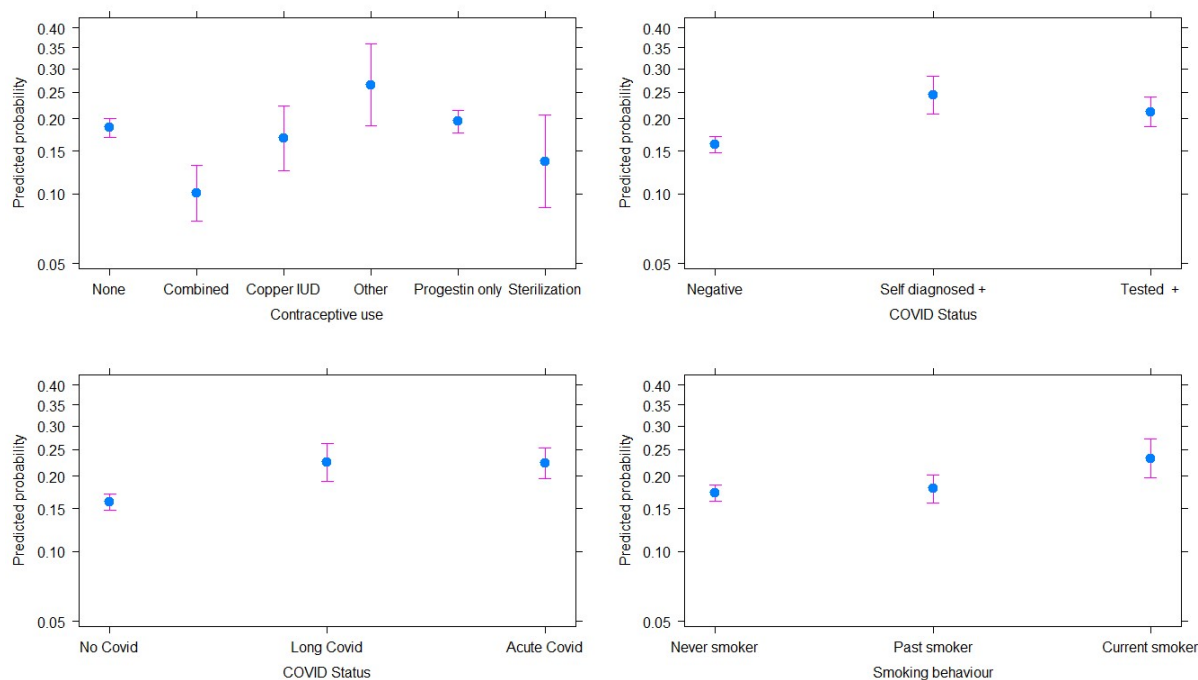


340  
 341 **Figure 3. Outputs of multivariable models for the odds of reporting any menstrual cycle changes**  
 342 **following COVID-19 vaccination.** Each of the 5 exposures associated with the outcome at FDR-  
 343 adjusted  $P<0.05$  in the univariable analysis (i.e., pandemic-related menstrual changes (PRMC),  
 344 contraceptive use, COVID-19 type, COVID-19 diagnosis, smoking behaviour) was entered in a  
 345 multivariable model together with potential confounding (but not mediating) effects where appropriate



346 (see SI5 for DAGs). *Model I*: Smoking behaviour; *Model II*: Contraceptive use; *Model III*: COVID-19  
347 type adjusted for contraceptive use and smoking behaviour; *Model IV*: COVID-19 diagnosis adjusted  
348 for contraceptive use and smoking behaviour; *Model V*: PRMC adjusted for COVID-19 type; *Model VI*:  
349 PRMC adjusted for COVID-19 diagnosis.

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354 **Figure 4. Predicted probability of reporting any menstrual changes following COVID-19**

355 **vaccination.** Predicted values and 95 confidence intervals given contraceptive use, COVID status  
356 (based on type and certainty of diagnosis) and menstrual cycle changes over the last year. Most  
357 individuals (80%) reported no menstrual disturbances following COVID-19 vaccination. This  
358 probability was lower for users of combined (including oestradiol) contraceptives and higher for current  
359 smokers and those who had had a positive COVID status.

360  
361 The type of contraceptive used and the history of COVID infection, while correlated, did not  
362 offer good predictive value for whether an individual will report changes to their menstrual  
363 cycle. Each exposure alone contributed an increase of only 1 to 3% of explained variance. The

364 AUCs for the multivariate models were low across the imputed datasets (0.57 to 0.61) and the  
365 complete case dataset (0.63): the variables considered are not sufficient for predicting  
366 accurately whether an individual will report menstrual changes after vaccination. To improve  
367 the prediction accuracy of our models, we also performed a LASSO regression considering all  
368 33 variables, but no improvement in AUC was obtained (SI12), suggesting that key variables  
369 are missing from our dataset and/or that the subjective outcome is not defined specifically  
370 enough for accurate prediction, especially if experiences of menstrual changes are diverse.

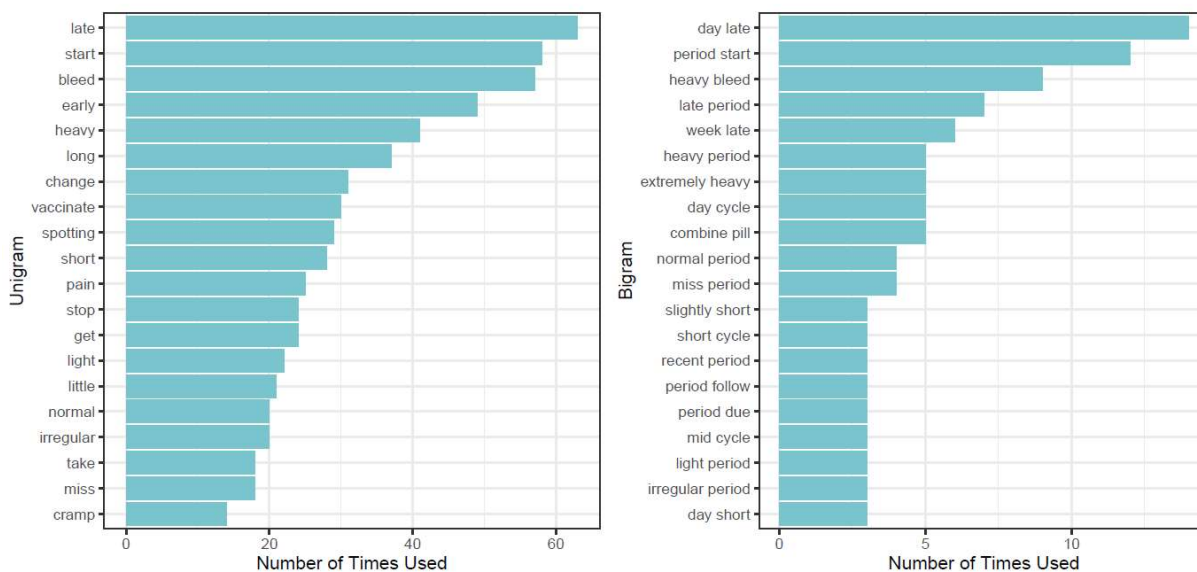
371

### 372 **Description of menstrual cycle changes following COVID-19 vaccination**

373 *Most common changes reported.* The analysis of text written by participants who selected  
374 “Other changes” (n= 574, 57% of those reporting any changes) rather than “MORE disruption”  
375 or “LESS disruption” showed concerns over cycle length and menstrual bleeding patterns. The  
376 most common unigrams (individual words) were “late”, “bleed”, “early”, “long”, “heavy”,  
377 “spotting”, “short”, “pain” and “stop” and the most common bigrams (pairs of adjacent words)  
378 were “day late”, “period start”, “heavy bleed”, and “late period” (Fig. 5). While many reported  
379 menstrual cycle changes that entailed heavier bleeding/period, there was no one single pattern  
380 of symptoms, with changes including both early and late period, and diverse experiences  
381 reported (from “miss period” to “heavy bleed”).

382

383



384  
385 **Figure 5. Most common words used to describe menstrual cycle changes following COVID-19**

386 **vaccination (n = 574).** (A) Most common words. (B) Most common pairs of adjacent words.

387

388

389 *Associations between symptoms.* Only a few symptoms are correlated ( $\phi < -0.2$  or  $\phi > 0.2$ ).

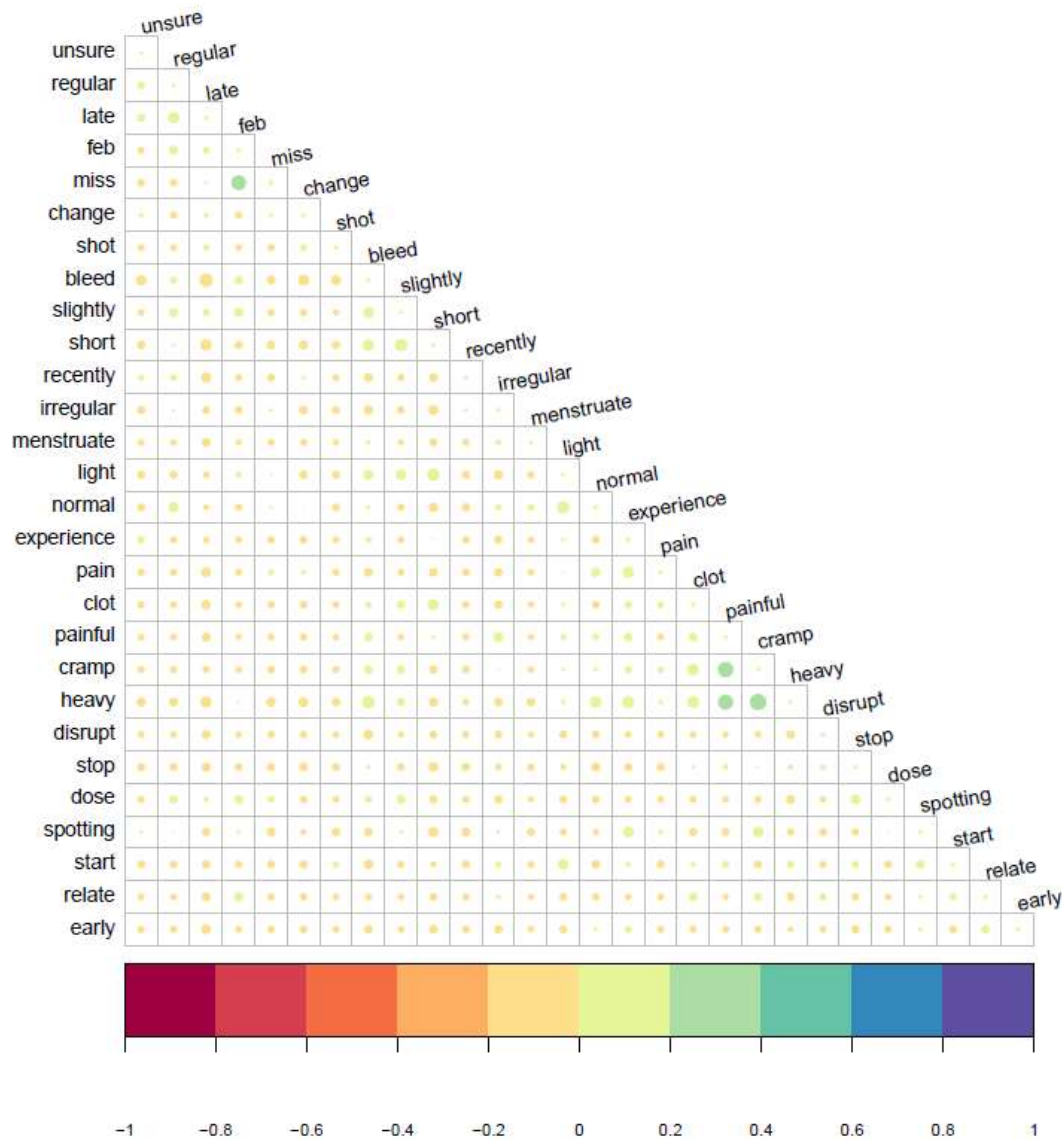
390 “Cramps” positively correlate with “pain” and “heavy” and “bleed” negatively correlates with

391 “late”. Further, “lighter” positively correlates with “normal”, as participants report that “*period*

392 *was two days late, and lighter than normal*”. However, “lighter” and “late” do not co-occur

393 more than expected by chance (Fig. 6).

394



395  
 396 **Figure 6. Correlation matrix between key words within sentences describing menstrual cycle**  
 397 **changes following COVID-19 vaccination.** The size and colour of the dots indicates the strength of  
 398 the correlation (phi coefficient) between words.  
 399  
 400 *Clusters of words.* Different clusters of symptoms emerge from the text, such as irregular  
 401 periods, heavy cramps, and pain. However, the “pain” cluster encompassed many words that  
 402 are weakly correlated, suggesting a diversity of pain experience. There was also some  
 403 uncertainty regarding which changes do occur, with participants finding it “hard to say if the



## 418 **Discussion**

419  
420

421 Using data collected in the UK prior to widespread media attention to menstrual disturbances  
422 following COVID-19 vaccination, this study found that among pre-menopausal vaccinated  
423 individuals who menstruated in the 12 months preceding the survey, 20% reported any changes  
424 to their menstrual cycles up to 4 months after receiving their first injection. In this sample, there  
425 was an association between a history of COVID infection and an increased relative risk of  
426 reporting changes of menstrual cycles following vaccination against COVID-19, independently  
427 of how COVID status was determined, i.e., using COVID type (Acute vs. Long Covid) or  
428 certainty of diagnosis (tested vs. self-diagnosed positive). This study also found that using  
429 contraceptives containing oestradiol (e.g., the pill, the vaginal ring, and the patch) is associated  
430 with a 50% lower odds of reporting menstrual cycle changes post-COVID-19 vaccination.  
431 Beyond smoking, none of the other variables investigated including age, BMI, socio-economic  
432 status, or vaccine type were associated with post-vaccination menstrual disturbances.  
433 Descriptive accounts point to diverse menstrual disturbances including “late” and “early”  
434 periods as well as “heavy bleeding” (Box 1).

435

436 **Meaning of the study:** Most menstruating people in our sample did not experience menstrual  
437 changes following COVID-19 vaccination. This provides reassuring data when counselling  
438 reproductive-aged women about COVID-19 vaccination and menstrual changes. However, one  
439 in five did report menstrual disturbance following COVID-19 vaccination, a proportion that is  
440 above the threshold for a "very common" adverse reaction according to international  
441 pharmacovigilance standards. Clinicians should consider counselling women about these  
442 possible menstrual effects following COVID-19 vaccination, while emphasising the need to

443 seek medical advice if they are severe, last more than one cycle or involve "red flag" symptoms  
444 such as inter-menstrual bleeding, post-coital bleeding, or post-menopausal bleeding. This study  
445 also suggests that current smoking and having had COVID-19 may make one more likely to  
446 experience menstrual disturbance following COVID-19 vaccination and that those on the  
447 COCP are less likely to experience menstrual disturbance. Knowledge of risk factors may help  
448 tailor advice to individuals who menstruate prior to COVID-19 vaccination.

449  
450 **Strengths and weaknesses of the study:** The analysis is drawing upon a survey not specifically  
451 designed to investigate the impact of COVID-19 vaccination on menstruation. It is retrospective  
452 in nature as well as sensitive to selection, recall and report biases and does not systematically  
453 assess the full spectrum of menstrual disturbance defined by the International Federation of  
454 Gynecology and Obstetrics Abnormal Uterine Bleeding System 1 [27]. We took several steps  
455 to limit selection bias during sampling (see methods) and the initial survey is broadly  
456 representative of people infected with COVID (8.9% with a positive PCR test compared to a  
457 national proportion of 6.6% at the time [28]). However, approximately 45% of the sample had  
458 received at least one dose of the vaccine, as compared to the national proportion of 59% by the  
459 time of the last survey entry [29]. In addition, menstrual changes may manifest later, and our  
460 study does not have the time depth to evaluate this possibility. However, among the studies of  
461 other vaccines conducted on a longer timescale, no effect was found by 6-9 months [14,30].

462  
463 **Strengths and weaknesses of the study in relation to other studies:** While the survey is also  
464 sensitive to *recall* bias, it is limited as compared to more recent surveys [8] as the issue of  
465 menstrual disturbances was not reported by the British Broadcasting Corporation until May 13,  
466 2021 [31], as compared to a flurry of attention in US media throughout April [1–3].

467 Reassuringly, reporting bias would be expected to affect all sections of the sample similarly,  
468 and thus it would not explain specific associations such as with contraceptive type.

469

470 **Unanswered questions and future research:** The association between a history of SARS-  
471 CoV-2 infection and menstrual disturbances post-vaccination in this study may be partly due to  
472 the effect of prior infection with SARS-CoV-2 on the immune response to vaccination, which  
473 has been found to be heightened [32]. Biological data would be needed to verify this hypothesis.  
474 The findings also suggest that exogenous oestrogen may reduce post-vaccination menstrual  
475 disturbances through anti-inflammatory or anti-viral effects. This is consistent with the recent  
476 suggestion that an “inflammatory” rather than an “ovulatory” route might explain menstrual  
477 disturbances following COVID-19 vaccination given the high prevalence of breakthrough  
478 bleeding among users of long-acting reversible contraceptives (LARC) [8]. A protective effect  
479 of oestrogen [33] and oestradiol [34] has been suggested in relation to the severity of COVID-  
480 19, and randomized control trials on unbiased samples would be needed to establish causality  
481 between oestrogen and the reduced risk of menstrual disturbances following COVID-19  
482 vaccination. Finally, the diversity of menstrual responses to COVID-19 vaccination might be  
483 partly explained by the timing of vaccination in relation to the menstrual cycle. The findings  
484 thus call for routine menstrual data collection in COVID-19 and vaccination studies as well as  
485 research into the mechanisms of menstrual disturbance following vaccination.

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## 587 **Box 1**

### 588 **What is already known on this topic?**

- 589 • Menstrual disturbances including changes in frequency and/or dysmenorrhoea  
590 following vaccination have been reported as early as 1913 for the typhoid vaccine (1).  
591 Since then there have only been a few studies investigating this topic, using small  
592 sample sizes (hepatitis vaccine (2)) or reporting mixed results (HPV vaccine (3,4)).
- 593 • The UK's Medicine and Healthcare products Regulatory Agency (MHRA) is closely  
594 monitoring reports of menstrual disorders, with more than 30,000 reports made to its  
595 yellow card surveillance scheme by 2 September 2021 following vaccination with both  
596 mRNA and adenovirus-vectored COVID-19 vaccines (5).
- 597 • In a recent preprint of a retrospective case-control study of 21,380 pre-menopausal  
598 participants living in the US, 45.8% of 9,579 people with regular menstrual cycles  
599 experienced heavier bleeding after COVID-19 vaccination. In addition, 70.5% of 1,545  
600 non-menstruating people using long-acting reversible contraceptives (LARC)  
601 experienced breakthrough bleeding after COVID-19 vaccination (6). This informative  
602 study may be affected by selection bias and may not be generalisable.

603

### 604 **What this study adds**

- 605 • In a large sample of participants vaccinated against COVID-19 surveyed in the UK  
606 before widespread media attention to related menstrual changes, the prevalence of  
607 menstrual changes was 1 in 5.
- 608 • Out of 33 socio-demographic, health, vaccine, COVID- and pandemic-related and  
609 reproductive variables, the odds of reporting any menstrual changes following COVID-

610           19 vaccination were associated with a history of SARS-CoV-2 infection, smoking  
611           behaviour and the type of contraceptives used.

612           • Menstrual changes that were reported were diverse, ranging from increased bleeding to  
613           the cessation of bleeding.

614           • The study highlights the need for greater consideration of the menstrual cycle in health  
615           interventions.

616

617

## 618 **Supporting Information Caption**

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620 SI1: Recruitment facebook ads

621 SI2 : Information sheet

622 SI3 : Survey questions

623 SI4 : Operationalization of variables

624 SI5 : DAG

625 SI6: Missing data evaluation

626 SI7: Complete cases analysis

627 SI8 : Text analysis

628 SI9 : AUC univariable models

629 SI10: Table univariable models

630 SI11 : Table multivariable models

631 SI12: AUC Lasso