

# Development of a comprehensive health-risk prediction tool for postmenopausal women

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## Abstract

**Objective:** The aim of the study was to develop a web-based calculator that predicts the likelihood of experiencing multiple, competing outcomes prospectively over 5, 10, and 15 years.

**Methods:** Baseline demographic and medical data from a healthy and racially and ethnically diverse cohort of 161,808 postmenopausal women, aged 50 to 79 at study baseline, who participated in the Women's Health Initiative (WHI), were used to develop and evaluate a risk-prediction calculator designed to predict individual risk for morbidity and mortality outcomes. Women were enrolled from 40 sites arranged in four regions of the United States. The calculator predicts all-cause mortality, adjudicated outcomes of health events (ie, myocardial infarction [MI], stroke, and hip fracture), and disease (lung, breast, and colorectal cancer). A proportional subdistribution hazards regression model was used to develop the calculator in a training dataset using data from three regions. The calculator was evaluated using the C-statistic in a test dataset with data from the fourth region.

**Results:** The predictive validity of our calculator measured by the C-statistic in the test dataset for a first event at 5 and 15 years was as follows: MI 0.77, 0.61, stroke 0.77, 0.72, lung cancer 0.82, 0.79, breast cancer 0.60, 0.59, colorectal cancer 0.67, 0.60, hip fracture 0.79, 0.76, and death 0.74, 0.72.

**Conclusion:** This study represents the first large-scale study to develop a risk prediction calculator that yields health risk prediction for several outcomes simultaneously. Development of this tool is a first step toward enabling women to prioritize interventions that may decrease these risks.

**Key Words:** Comorbidity – Postmenopausal women – Risk prediction – Women's Health Initiative.

**Video Summary:** <http://links.lww.com/MENO/A463>.

Healthcare providers and patients share a common interest in the accurate prediction of risk for both morbidity (ie, various disease outcomes) and mortality based on the individual patient's lifestyle, family history, and other risk factors. Because some risk factors, for example, smoking, may increase the impact of several diseases (eg, cardiovascular disease, cancer), accurate prediction of a specific disease outcome (ie, cardiovascular disease or

cancer) is a complicated endeavor. Many clinically available risk prediction algorithms do not account for competing risks. Competing risks are events that preclude, or reduce the importance, for an individual, of the outcome of interest. The development and evaluation of a tool that could accurately incorporate competing outcomes into the risk prediction of a specific disease (ie, a calculator that accounts for risk of cancer-related morbidity and mortality whilst predicting

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risk for cardiovascular disease) would represent a significant clinical advancement.

There are several widely available risk algorithms for predicting morbidity among older adults, including women. These include the ACC/AHA Pooled Cohort Equations (<http://tools.acc.org/ascvd-risk-estimator-plus/>),<sup>1</sup> the Framingham heart disease risk score (<https://www.framingham-heartstudy.org/risk-functions/>),<sup>2</sup> the Gail risk score for breast cancer risk (<http://www.cancer.gov/bcrisktool/>),<sup>3</sup> the Reynolds risk calculator for cardiovascular disease ([www.reynoldsriskscore.org/](http://www.reynoldsriskscore.org/))<sup>4</sup> and the Fracture Risk assessment Tool (FRAX) (<https://www.shef.ac.uk/FRAX/tool.jsp>)<sup>5</sup> for evaluating fracture risk. Although some incorporate competing risks, others do not.

None of these tools predict the risk of multiple disease outcomes simultaneously. This limits their clinical utility, particularly with respect to postmenopausal women, as the likelihood of multiple, competing morbidities increases with age. For example, women at high risk of having a myocardial infarction (MI) have a shorter average life-span, lowering their likelihood of developing breast cancer or experiencing hip fracture relative to women at low risk of MI. Failure to incorporate the competing cardiovascular risk into a risk prediction algorithm for breast cancer or hip fracture would be expected to yield results that are limited in value to patient and provider. Furthermore, these prevention efforts might receive less attention because of focus on less lethal conditions and the opportunity for clear guidance to engage the patient with meaningful primary and secondary prevention efforts may be lost.

Another example of this is observed in the widely used FRAX algorithm for predicting hip fracture risk. Paradoxically, when using FRAX to assess older women, the fracture risk *decreases* with age (see Leslie et al<sup>6</sup>). This misleading “decrease” in fracture risk is a manifestation of this algorithm’s lack of individualization of risk of death, instead using the average risk of death for a woman the same age. In contrast, appropriate risk prediction that accounts for competing health risks will show that for a woman with a long-life expectancy, fracture risk increases with age. Ideally, one should be able to predict the risk of specific outcomes, such as fracture, while accounting for the risk of other outcomes. Specifically, calculators designed to provide women, and their providers, with information about the probabilities of a particular outcome occurring first, are warranted. Nevertheless, to our knowledge, no published health risk calculators yet accomplish this.

In the present work, we aim to address this literature gap by developing and evaluating a risk calculator that addresses multiple, competing morbidity (MI, stroke, lung, breast and colorectal cancer, hip fracture) and mortality (all causes of death) risks simultaneously. The calculator will account for competing risks and yield estimates of the probability of each outcome occurring first, offering at least a preliminary mechanism for prioritizing health prevention and maintenance efforts based upon women’s most immediate risks. We will

accomplish this using data collected from the large, diverse cohort of postmenopausal women who participated in the Women’s Health Initiative (WHI) and examine the veracity of our risk prediction tool for 5-, 10-, and 15-year risk of outcomes.

## METHODS

### Study population

The WHI recruited a diverse cohort of 161,808 healthy, postmenopausal women aged 50 to 79 years at baseline from four geographical regions throughout the United States.<sup>7</sup> Recruitment efforts (baseline) occurred between 1993 and 1998. The WHI consisted of an observational study (OS) cohort and four clinical trial (CT) cohorts (a low-fat diet intervention, two trials of menopausal hormone, and an overlapping trial of supplemental calcium and vitamin D). All women in the OS and CT cohorts are used in the current analysis to develop the risk prediction models. The scientific rationale, study design, eligibility criteria, and baseline characteristics of these studies have been previously reported.<sup>7</sup>

In this study, we use outcomes reported, confirmed by record, and adjudicated by independent panels of study physicians using standardized protocols during the main WHI study (1993-2005) and the first extension study (2005-2010). A total of 115,400 women (86% of survivors) enrolled in the extension study and no new participants were added. Mortality data are available for all participants. Institutional review boards at participating institutions approved procedures and protocols. All participants provided written informed consent.

### Primary outcomes

The primary outcomes for this analysis were chosen based on their clinical relevance and frequency in the study population (incidence of ~2% or greater at 15 y). Predictive models were built for (1) MI, (2) stroke, (3) lung cancer, (4) breast cancer, (5) colorectal cancer, (6) hip fracture, and (7) death from any cause, as defined by WHI.<sup>8</sup> We considered outcomes occurring within 5, 10, and 15 years of baseline. The supplemental digital content (<http://links.lww.com/MENO/A464>) contains additional details on the outcome definitions and adjudication.

### Risk predictor definitions

During the baseline clinic visit, each study participant completed self-administered questionnaires on demographics, medical history, medications, smoking, diet, physical activity, and other lifestyle-related factors, and had blood pressure, weight, and height measured (<https://www.whi.org/researchers/studydoc/SitePages/Home.aspx>). Waist circumference was measured to the nearest 0.5 cm at the narrowest part of the torso at the end of a normal expiration. Risk predictor selections were made a priori and were guided by previously identified risk factors and calibrated using existing (ie, published) risk algorithms. See the supplemental digital content

(<http://links.lww.com/MENO/A464>) for additional details on the risk predictors.

**Statistical methods**

A diagram to summarize the steps to build and fit the models is displayed in Figure 1. We began by splitting the data into a training and a test dataset by randomly selecting one of the four similarly sized WHI geographic regions to be the test dataset.

This approach exploits regional differences, allowing us to evaluate model performance in a geographically distinct cohort in the absence of an external validation. The South WHI region was used as the test dataset and women from the other three WHI regions (Northeast, Midwest, and West) comprised the training dataset. All model building and model checking was performed on the training dataset. The test dataset was used to evaluate the prediction model’s performance. We compared the

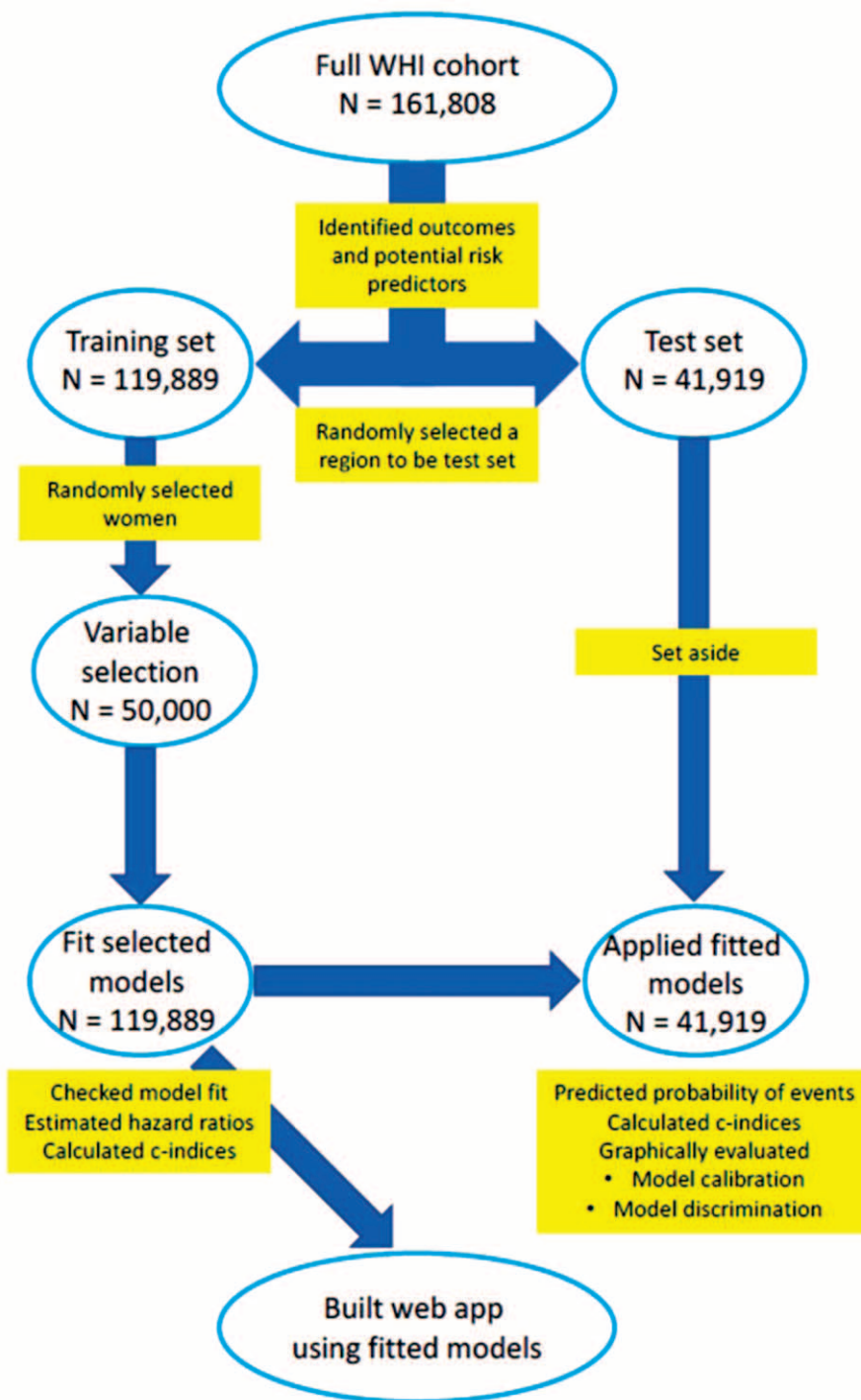


FIG. 1. Summary of steps to build and fit models using Women’s Health Initiative (WHI) data.

distribution of risk predictors in the test and training set using standardized difference, a measure of the difference in means between two groups expressed in units of standard deviations.<sup>9</sup>

As the goal was to create a calculator to predict the probability of a woman having one specific outcome (eg, cardiovascular event) before another outcome (eg, cancer diagnosis), we used a competing risk framework to build the prediction model. Competing risk algorithms model the time until an event occurs in a period when more than one event type is possible. A separate model was fit for each outcome and time point to obtain a predicted probability for each event type at 5, 10, or 15 years. The models use data from baseline to predict the probability of the event. We fit the proportional subdistribution hazards regression model described in Fine and Gray.<sup>10</sup> The proportional hazards assumption was evaluated by visually examining Schoenfeld residuals and no apparent violations were identified.

Our primary approach treats any event besides the primary outcome of interest as a competing event, which differs from the classical definition of a competing event as one that precludes the event of interest from occurring. This “event first” approach should facilitate risk prediction that provides an individual with information about her probability of experiencing one health event relative to another. In other words, it should predict an individual patient’s likelihood of MI, relative to the likelihood of stroke, hip fracture, breast, lung, or colorectal cancer diagnoses, or death from any cause. In the decision-making process, we believe a woman would benefit by understanding the probability of ever experiencing the event of interest (MI in the example above) in the context of other health events. To address this concern, we additionally fit models for each event type where the only competing risk is death and additionally present these predicted probabilities (event ever). The participants were followed until the first occurrence of any outcome in the “event first” approach and until the outcome of interest or death in the “event ever” approach; loss to follow-up (last visit through September 30, 2010 used as last date of follow-up); or completion of 15 years of follow-up, whichever came first. Additional details about the modeling approaches are contained in the supplemental digital content (<http://links.lww.com/MENO/A464>).

Variables included in the main effects analyses were chosen a priori for inclusion in the predictive models. We also used variable selection to select two-way interactions from a pre-specified list for inclusion in the models.<sup>11,12</sup> Additional details on the variable selection methods are provided in the supplemental digital content (<http://links.lww.com/MENO/A464>). The models were fit to the full training data set to estimate coefficients to be used in obtaining predictions.

Missing data were imputed using the methods described in the supplemental digital content (<http://links.lww.com/MENO/A464>).<sup>13,14</sup> Missing values were minimal; imputation was needed for only 1% of the nearly 14.5 million data points. Despite the small overall proportion of observations missing, the 1% of missing data points was, however, distributed evenly across the women and imputation was used because

44% of women were missing data on one or more risk predictors (Supplemental digital content Appendix Figure 1, <http://links.lww.com/MENO/A464>).

To evaluate the model calibration, we plotted predicted risk versus the observed event rate. In a well-calibrated model, the predicted risk will approximate observed risk. We calculated the concordance statistic (C-statistic) to assess model discrimination.<sup>15</sup> Model discrimination is also graphically displayed in Kaplan–Meier plots stratified by predicted risk quintile. In models with good discrimination, the women in each predicted risk quintile will have differing survival curves, indicated by distinct and correctly ordered survival curves in the stratified Kaplan–Meier plot.

All statistical analyses were performed in R version 3.2.3.<sup>16</sup> The “mice” R package was used to multiply impute the data, the “cmprsk”<sup>17</sup> package was used to fit the competing risk models, and the “crrstep”<sup>18</sup> was used in the variable selection. The risk prediction model is implemented in an interactive, web-based application (app) that was created using Shiny.

## RESULTS

We included 161,808 women in our study (119,889 in the training set, 41,919 in the test set) and had complete follow-up for 98% of women at 5 years, 78% at 10 years, 45% at 14 years, and 27% at 15 years. Baseline data for women in the training set, composed of three regions, and the test set, the WHI South region, are shown in Table 1. The training set is 85% non-Hispanic white, 6% non-Hispanic black, and 9% reporting other race/ethnicities. The test set is 75% non-Hispanic white, 17% non-Hispanic black, 7% Hispanic, and 2% reporting other race/ethnicities. The mean age is 63.5 years in the training set and 62.4 years in the test set (see Table 1). Race/ethnicity, age, age at first birth, and number of pregnancies differ between the training and test regions.

Regarding morbidity and mortality data, the observed 15-year cumulative frequencies of the outcomes were MI 4%, stroke 4%, lung cancer 2%, breast cancer 7%, colorectal cancer 2%, hip fracture 2%, and death 13% (Table 2). Appendix Table 1 (Supplemental digital content <http://links.lww.com/MENO/A464>) shows the C-statistics for the training sets and test sets at 5, 10, and 15 years in the event-first models. The C-statistics for training and test samples at 15 years for the event-first models are as follows: MI 0.71, 0.61, stroke 0.70, 0.72, lung cancer 0.77, 0.79, breast cancer 0.59, 0.59, colorectal cancer 0.61, 0.60, hip fracture 0.76, 0.76, and death 0.71, 0.72. The estimated hazard ratios for each prediction variable are displayed for all models (Supplemental digital content Appendix Table 1, <http://links.lww.com/MENO/A464>).

The distribution of predicted risk for selected outcomes at 15 years is displayed in Supplemental digital content Appendix Figure 2 (<http://links.lww.com/MENO/A464>). Model calibration for the event-first models is displayed in Supplemental digital content Appendix Figure 3 (<http://links.lww.com/MENO/A464>). Overall, the models were well calibrated as demonstrated by predicted rates consistent with observed rates. The breast and colorectal cancer predictions yielded slightly

TABLE 1. Baseline demographic, medical, and lifestyle characteristics of the Women's Health Initiative (WHI) cohort

Variables	Training set (Northeast, Midwest, West regions) (N = 119,889)	Test set (South region) (N = 41,919)	Standardized difference
Age, mean (SD)	63.54 (7.21)	62.37 (7.25)	0.163
Race/ethnicity			0.414
American Indian or Alaska Native	543 (0.5)	170 (0.4)	
Asian or Pacific Islander	3,933 (3.3)	257 (0.6)	
Non-Hispanic black	7,696 (6.4)	6,922 (16.6)	
Hispanic	3,755 (3.1)	2,729 (6.5)	
Non-Hispanic white	102,142 (85.4)	31,399 (75.1)	
Other	1,507 (1.3)	342 (0.8)	
Income <sup>a</sup>			0.103
<\$10,000	4,572 (4.0)	2,365 (5.9)	
\$10-20K	13,524 (11.7)	4,975 (12.4)	
\$20-35K	27,706 (24.0)	8,959 (22.4)	
\$35-50K	23,157 (20.1)	7,755 (19.4)	
\$50-75K	22,479 (19.5)	7,469 (18.7)	
\$75-100K	10,126 (8.8)	3,487 (8.7)	
\$100-150K	6,935 (6.0)	2,502 (6.3)	
>\$150,000	3,666 (3.2)	1,257 (3.1)	
Don't know	3,135 (2.7)	1,249 (3.1)	
Occupation <sup>a</sup>			0.070
Managerial/professional	46,499 (42.0)	16,005 (42.1)	
Technical/sales/admin	33,365 (30.1)	10,758 (28.3)	
Service/labor	19,832 (17.9)	6,716 (17.7)	
Homemaker only	10,993 (9.9)	4,544 (12.0)	
Diabetes	6,824 (5.7)	2,794 (6.7)	0.041
Medical history			
High cholesterol	15,716 (13.9)	5,819 (14.8)	0.026
Migraine	12,642 (11.2)	4,452 (11.3)	0.005
Atrial fibrillation	5,171 (4.4)	1,899 (4.6)	0.012
Stroke	1,558 (1.3)	607 (1.4)	0.013
Myocardial infarction	2,747 (2.3)	957 (2.3)	<0.001
Gallbladder disease or gallstones	19,560 (16.4)	6,627 (16.0)	0.012
Underactive thyroid	17,602 (15.6)	5,479 (14.1)	0.043
Overactive thyroid	3,215 (2.9)	1,040 (2.8)	0.009
Hypertension	39,918 (33.5)	14,353 (34.6)	0.023
Broke bone	44,622 (39.2)	14,682 (36.9)	0.047
Hip fracture at age 55+	619 (0.7)	215 (0.7)	0.005
Treated hypertension			0.029
Never hypertensive	75,241 (66.3)	25,833 (65.3)	
Untreated hypertension	9,288 (8.2)	3,123 (7.9)	
Treated hypertension	29,041 (25.6)	10,611 (26.8)	
Age at menarche			0.044
<9	1,598 (1.3)	607 (1.5)	
10	6,349 (5.3)	2,021 (4.8)	
11	18,322 (15.3)	6,467 (15.5)	
12	31,052 (26.0)	10,961 (26.3)	
13	34,762 (29.1)	11,833 (28.4)	
14	15,925 (13.3)	5,527 (13.3)	
15	6,564 (5.5)	2,510 (6.0)	
16	3,633 (3.0)	1,416 (3.4)	
>17	1,246 (1.0)	368 (0.9)	
Ever breastfeed	61,152 (51.5)	21,053 (51.0)	0.010
Ovaries removed			0.082
None	85,234 (72.0)	28,108 (68.4)	
One	8,257 (7.0)	3,309 (8.1)	
Both	22,730 (19.2)	8,825 (21.5)	
Unknown number removed	983 (0.8)	451 (1.1)	
Part of an ovary removed	1,173 (1.0)	386 (0.9)	
Breast biopsy (yes/no)	26,579 (23.3)	10,151 (25.6)	0.053
Number of pregnancies			0.108
Never pregnant	11,172 (9.4)	3,718 (8.9)	
1	7,863 (6.6)	3,439 (8.3)	
2-4	69,593 (58.3)	25,379 (61.0)	
5+	30,775 (25.8)	9,092 (21.8)	
Number of term pregnancies			0.150
Never pregnant	11,172 (9.4)	3,718 (8.9)	
Never had term pregnancy	2,923 (2.5)	1,318 (3.2)	
1	9,859 (8.3)	4,346 (10.5)	
2	28,883 (24.2)	11,388 (27.4)	
3	28,943 (24.3)	9,896 (23.8)	
4	18,696 (15.7)	5,861 (14.1)	
5+	18,742 (15.7)	5,017 (12.1)	

(Continued on next page)

TABLE 1 (Continued)

Variables	Training set (Northeast, Midwest, West regions) (N = 119,889)	Test set (South region) (N = 41,919)	Standardized difference
Age at first birth			0.168
Never pregnant	11,172 (10.3)	3,718 (10.0)	
Never had term pregnancy	2,923 (2.7)	1,318 (3.5)	
<20	13,764 (12.7)	6,789 (18.3)	
20-29	71,666 (66.0)	22,561 (60.7)	
30+	9,128 (8.4)	2,787 (7.5)	
Mom alive	29,324 (24.8)	11,734 (28.5)	0.084
Dad alive	10,193 (8.7)	4,097 (10.1)	0.047
Relatives' medical history			
Myocardial infarction	59,568 (52.4)	20,605 (52.4)	<0.001
Broke bone	44,287 (40.0)	14,828 (38.6)	0.029
Number of family members with diabetes			0.092
None	76,175 (67.1)	25,145 (64.2)	
1	25,987 (22.9)	9,118 (23.3)	
2	7,353 (6.5)	2,951 (7.5)	
3	2,318 (2.0)	1,134 (2.9)	
4+	1,652 (1.5)	836 (2.1)	
Breast cancer (female)	21,365 (18.8)	7,045 (17.9)	0.023
Colorectal cancer (female)	9,584 (8.4)	3,152 (8.0)	0.015
Colorectal cancer (male)	10,252 (9.1)	3,149 (8.1)	0.036
Age mother had myocardial infarction			0.037
No MI	73,873 (77.4)	23,717 (75.9)	
<55	2,694 (2.8)	920 (2.9)	
55-64	4,491 (4.7)	1,569 (5.0)	
>65	13,591 (14.2)	4,788 (15.3)	
Yes, don't know age	779 (0.8)	259 (0.8)	
Age father had myocardial infarction			0.023
No myocardial infarction	64,925 (65.3)	21,495 (64.4)	
<55	7,118 (7.2)	2,405 (7.2)	
55-64	9,779 (9.8)	3,396 (10.2)	
>65	16,558 (16.7)	5,713 (17.1)	
Yes, don't know age	975 (1.0)	372 (1.1)	
Lactose-free diet	5,878 (5.0)	1,955 (4.9)	0.008
Moderate exercise <sup>b</sup>			0.064
None	60,078 (52.9)	21,970 (55.8)	
1 d/wk	13,079 (11.5)	4,309 (10.9)	
2 d/wk	13,038 (11.5)	4,256 (10.8)	
3 d/wk	14,436 (12.7)	4,885 (12.4)	
4 d/wk	5,091 (4.5)	1,654 (4.2)	
>4 d/wk	7,860 (6.9)	2,326 (5.9)	
MET-hours per week from walking, mean (SD) <sup>b</sup>	4.80 (6.07)	4.34 (5.80)	0.076
Alcohol intake			0.305
Nondrinker	10,311 (8.7)	7,341 (17.7)	
Past drinker	21,391 (18.0)	8,757 (21.1)	
< 1 drink/mo	15,201 (12.8)	4,725 (11.4)	
< 1 drink/wk	25,351 (21.3)	7,586 (18.3)	
1-6 drinks/wk	32,254 (27.1)	8,919 (21.5)	
7+ drinks/wk	14,624 (12.3)	4,124 (9.9)	
Years smoking, mean (SD)	3.68 (1.62)	3.58 (1.62)	0.062
Resting pulse, mean (SD), beats per 30 s	34.74 (5.85)	34.91 (6.59)	0.027
Height, mean (SD), cm	161.65 (6.63)	162.06 (6.73)	0.060
Weight, mean (SD), kg	73.34 (16.75)	74.10 (17.35)	0.045
BMI, mean (SD), kg/m <sup>2</sup>	27.95 (5.89)	28.05 (6.08)	0.018
Waist, mean (SD), cm	86.59 (13.82)	86.19 (13.89)	0.029
Hip, mean (SD), cm	106.30 (12.22)	106.78 (12.37)	0.039
Systolic blood pressure, mean (SD), mm Hg	127.30 (17.57)	127.62 (18.24)	0.018
Taking aspirin	26,466 (22.1)	8,376 (20.0)	0.051
Taking statins	9,007 (7.5)	3,236 (7.7)	0.008
General health			0.117
Excellent	20,617 (17.3)	6,771 (16.3)	
Very good	49,955 (41.9)	15,681 (37.8)	
Good	38,635 (32.4)	14,407 (34.7)	
Fair	9,240 (7.7)	4,222 (10.2)	
Poor	840 (0.7)	392 (0.9)	

The table contains the N (%) in each cell unless otherwise noted.

BMI, body mass index; MET, metabolic equivalent of task; SD, standard deviation.

<sup>a</sup>The socioeconomic variables income and education are provided to compare the women who are in the test and training set. They were not included in the risk prediction models.

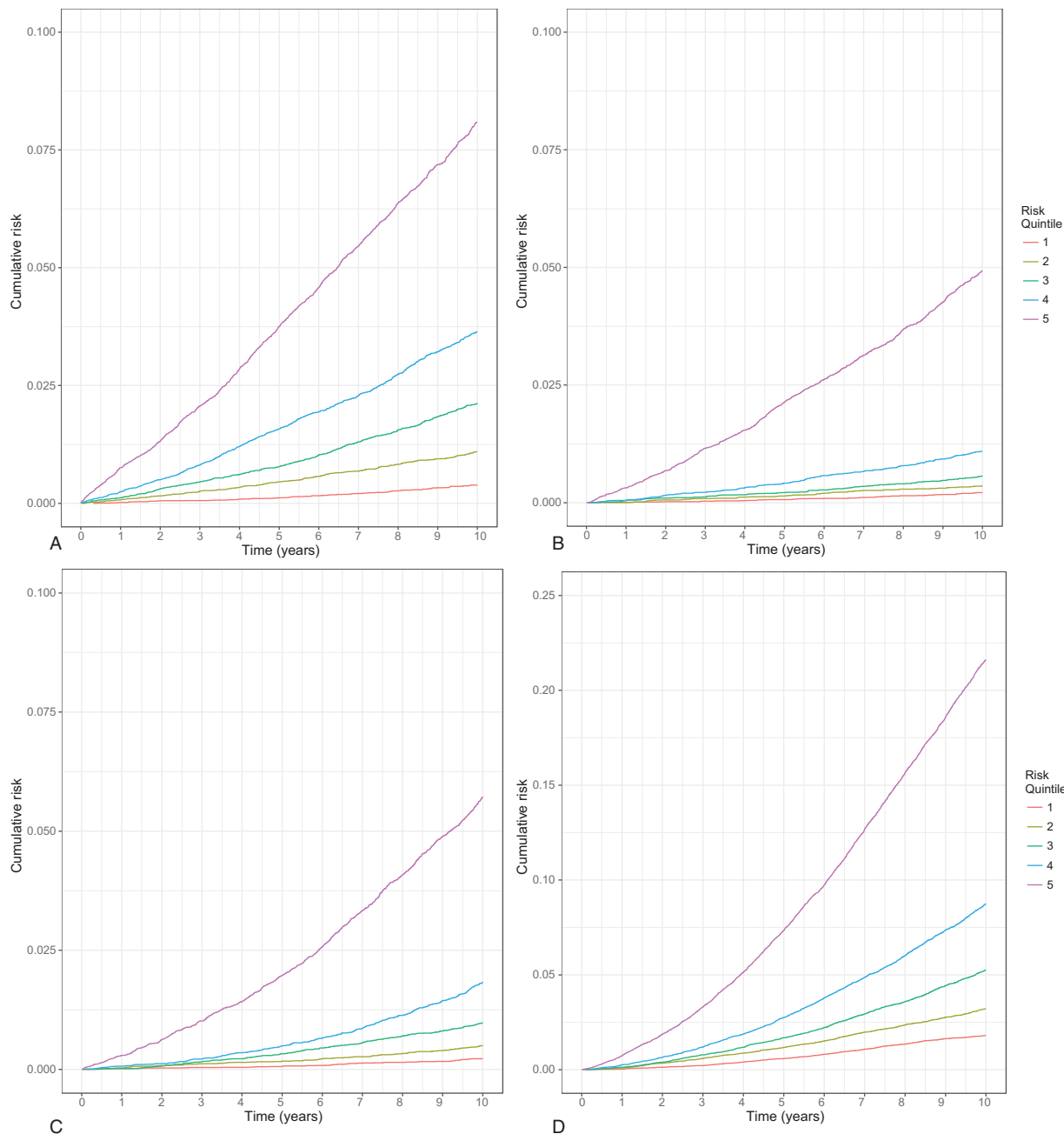
<sup>b</sup>The physical activity variables included in the risk prediction model were calculated from these variables and other physical activity variables.

**TABLE 2.** Prevalence of outcomes within 5, 10, and 15 years of baseline in all Women’s Health Initiative (WHI) women

	5 y	10 y	15 y
Myocardial infarction	2,063 (1.27%)	4,324 (2.67%)	5,836 (3.61%)
Stroke	1,938 (1.20%)	4,253 (2.63%)	6,151 (3.80%)
Lung cancer	905 (0.56%)	1,989 (1.23%)	2,933 (1.81%)
Breast cancer	4,321 (2.67%)	8,007 (4.95%)	10,745 (6.64%)
Colorectal cancer	1,011 (0.62%)	1,923 (1.19%)	2,610 (1.61%)
Hip fracture	904 (0.56%)	2,458 (1.52%)	3,895 (2.41%)
Death	4,341 (2.68%)	11,850 (7.32%)	20,408 (12.61%)

higher risk than rates actually observed in the data. The stroke predictions yielded slight underestimations of risk, relative to observed rates, among women in the highest risk deciles. Death was modestly, but consistently overpredicted in the test set, particularly for women in the higher risk deciles.

Model discrimination is graphically demonstrated by the differences in cumulative risk by quintile of predicted risk in Figure 2. As can be seen, the cumulative risk curves diverge over time, indicating the model discriminates risk well.



**FIG. 2.** Stratified Kaplan–Meier plot to evaluate model discrimination for (A) myocardial infarction, (B) lung cancer, (C) hip fracture, and (D) death. Note that the vertical axis is truncated to 0.1 in panels A, B, and C and to 0.25 in panel D. They do not extend to 1 due to the rarity of the events. Each line represents the lowest to highest risk quintile, according to a woman’s risk as predicted by the 10-year model for myocardial infarction, lung cancer, hip fracture, and death in the test set. In a model that discriminates well, we would expect that the highest risk quintile would have the highest cumulative risk and the lowest risk quintile would have the lowest observed cumulative risk.

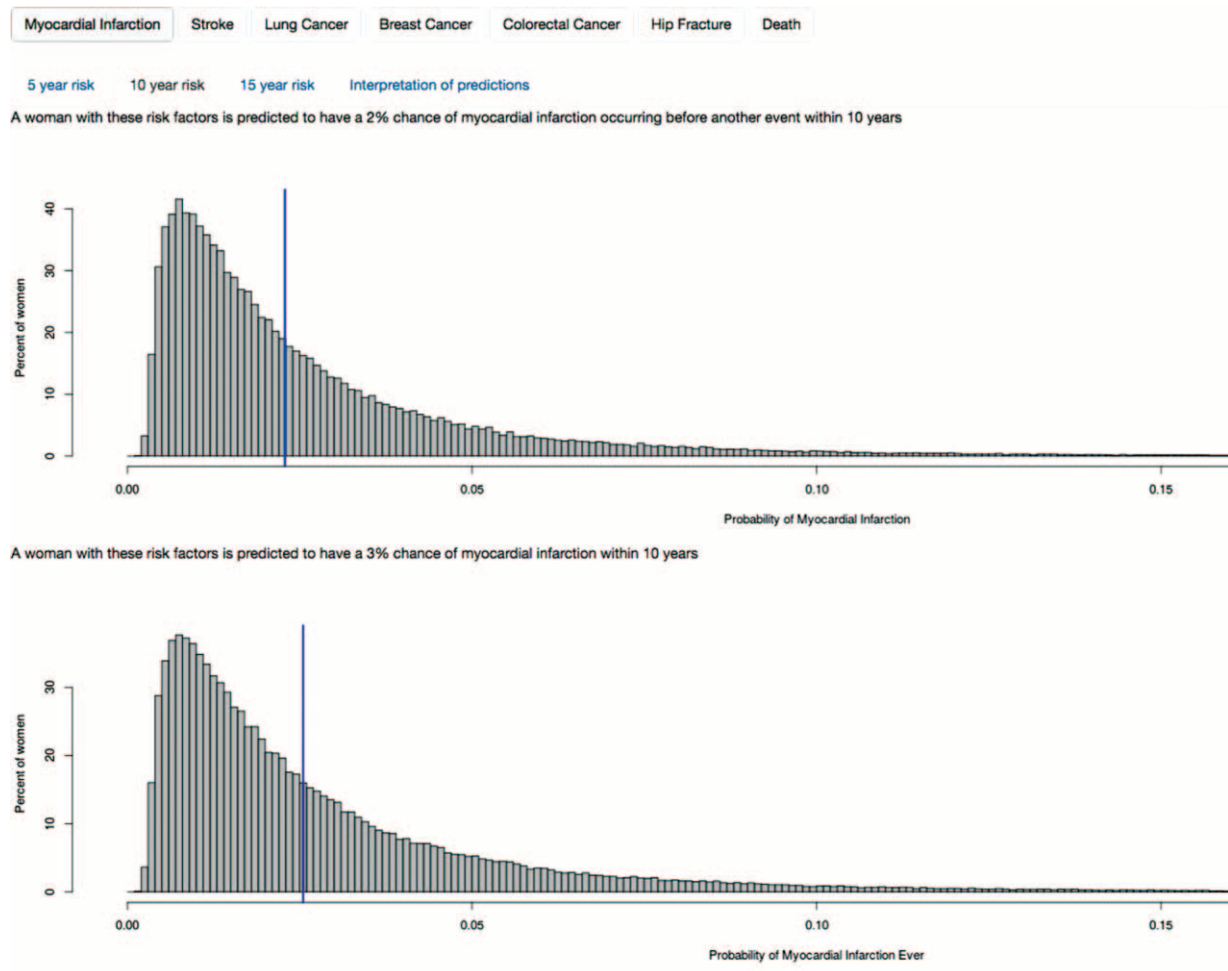


FIG. 3. Screenshot of web-based app.

From the models that were developed, an interactive, web-based application (ie, app) was produced. An image of the output produced by the app appears in Figure 3. The app can be accessed at <https://hedlin.shinyapps.io/shiny/>. The graphs at the bottom of the app show the woman's risk compared with age- and ethnicity-matched women. The first graph shows a woman's probability of having the event of interest before any other event in the next 5, 10, or 15 years (based on the event-first models). The second graph shows a woman's probability of having the event of interest ever within 5, 10, or 15 years (based on the event-ever models).

### DISCUSSION

We used the rich data resources of the WHI to develop and evaluate a calculator to predict the 5, 10, and 15-year risk of multiple disease and mortality outcomes in a diverse cohort of postmenopausal women aged 50 to 79 years. Discrimination was excellent for MI, stroke, lung cancer, hip fracture, and death through 10 years (C-statistics 0.73-0.89 in training and test sets), and remains very good for stroke, lung cancer, hip fracture, and death through 15 years (C-statistics 0.70-0.79).

Discrimination was more modest for breast and colorectal cancer at each time point (C-statistics 0.59-0.66 in training and test sets), however, and results suggested that the calculator overpredicted all-cause mortality in the test cohort.

Taken together, these findings offer an optimistic picture for the value and utility of the risk prediction tool in healthy postmenopausal women. Further research, particularly efforts to externally validate this tool with additional data sets will bolster our understanding of the tool's generalizability and offer evidence-based guidance for the refinement of its predictive models. This study represents the first large-scale study to develop a risk prediction calculator that yields health risk prediction for several outcomes simultaneously, and thus offers a novel contribution to the literature.

Despite its novelty, our study findings are consistent with prior literature in several important ways. First, this risk calculator produces C-statistics similar to published C-statistics from existing risk estimators for most outcomes, although some outcomes (breast cancer, for example) have slightly lower C-statistics for reasons we note below.<sup>1,19-25</sup> Unlike its predecessors, risk information is entered once and risk predictions for seven common health outcomes (ie, MI, stroke,

lung cancer, breast cancer, colorectal cancer, hip fracture, and death) are yielded simultaneously.

Our study has several methodological limitations that warrant discussion. First, our risk calculator was developed on women, aged 50 to 79 (baseline) who participated in WHI. As such, generalizability may be limited, and this work may be particularly relevant to US-based postmenopausal women whose health profile is similar to those recruited into WHI. Furthermore, WHI represents a cohort of women from an earlier era in women's health. As such several unique health era factors, for example, the state of premenopausal women's health care, availability and dosing of hormone-based therapies, and general state of the knowledge about women's postmenopausal risk for cancer and cardiovascular disease for WHI women, particularly the oldest group, that is, those aged 70 and older at baseline, warrant consideration as they too could influence the generalizability of our findings.

Second, although we internally validated the calculator by splitting the WHI data into training and test datasets that leveraged the considerable variability by region (particularly with respect to race/ethnicity), external validation efforts, that is, using another dataset entirely, are needed and would help to refine and ready the calculator for dissemination and use. External validation efforts are, however, beyond the scope of the current paper. The code used to build our models is available to other researchers who would like to externally validate or create a risk calculator for men or populations with other racial/ethnic compositions, for example. We underscore the importance of external validation and fully acknowledge the inherent challenge here as identifying a data set that is matched to WHI in terms of size and comprehensive health scope may prove difficult.

Third, the calculator's predictions for breast cancer are not as robust as other published risk calculators because we were unable to include outcome-specific predictors such as BRCA1 or BRCA2 mutations, or the number of breast biopsies for breast cancer. Our aim was to develop a tool for women who are not known to be at high risk of a condition to weigh the risks of various events. If she or her physician knows she is at high risk of an event, for example, knowing she has a BRCA mutation, this tool will not improve the ability to predict that event.

It is possible the models could be improved by introducing variables, such as lipids, bone mineral density, or genetic mutations, which were not available in the entire Women's Health Initiative cohort. At the same time, because we are making predictions for a range of outcomes, the amount of data needed to make the predictions is large and these additional variables may not be generally available to women. Entering many variables into the risk calculator is time consuming, but only needs to be done once for multiple outcomes.

Strengths of the present study include the fact that we developed and evaluated this tool on a very large and diverse cohort of postmenopausal women, in a high-quality (WHI) dataset with a myriad of health and health risk variables and adjudicated morbidity and mortality outcomes. The risk-prediction model underlying the calculator has been internally

validated by splitting the cohort into different regions of the country with different characteristics. Furthermore, the WHI dataset afforded us the opportunity for long-term follow-up, up to 15 years, with relatively complete ascertainment of events—a rare strength afforded by few available datasets.

## CONCLUSIONS

The current work presents the development and internal validation of an easy-to-use calculator that can yield meaningful and accurate short-, medium-, and long-term risk predictions for multiple competing outcomes simultaneously. This represents a significant advance in the available treatment planning, health prevention, and health maintenance “tools” for postmenopausal women, and the healthcare providers who care for them. Implications for women's health policy and practice might relate to the need to educate providers about use of comprehensive health risk prediction tools, including responsible use of these calculators, and cautious interpretation of findings, particularly when salient disease predictors (ie, bone mineral density, or genetic mutations) are absent from the algorithm. Guidance regarding best practices for interpreting findings that contrast with their clinical judgment and discussion of delicate matters of health priorities and intervention strategies with patients whose personal priorities and values may conflict with health prevention and intervention strategies (ie, smoking cessation to reduce MI risk) are also warranted.

Designed for use in postmenopausal women, this risk prediction algorithm was developed and validated on a select group of women and results may therefore not be fully generalizable to other population. Nevertheless, this work offers a highly valuable empiric foundation for calculators of this sort, and it is our hope that this work will encourage further research efforts that will increase our understanding of meaningful strategies for morbidity and mortality risk prediction in this population.

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