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Margaritis Voliotis, Simon Hanassab, Ali Abbara, Thomas Heinis, Waljit S. Dhillo, Krasimira Tsaneva-Atanasova

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# Quantitative approaches in clinical reproductive endocrinology

4 Authors: Margaritis Voliotis<sup>1\*</sup>, Simon Hanassab<sup>2,3,4\*</sup>, Ali Abbara<sup>2</sup>, Thomas Heinis <sup>3,4</sup>, Waljit S

5 Dhillo<sup>2</sup>, Krasimira Tsaneva-Atanasova<sup>1</sup>

- Department of Mathematics and Living Systems Institute, College of Engineering, Mathematics and
   Physical Sciences, University of Exeter, Exeter, UK.
- Department of Metabolism, Digestion and Reproduction, Imperial College London, Hammersmith
   Hospital, London, UK.
- 10 3. Department of Computing, Imperial College London, London, UK
- 1 4. UKRI Centre for Doctoral Training in AI for Healthcare, Imperial College London, London, UK
- 12 \*joint first authors
- 13

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## 14 Abstract

15 Understanding the human hypothalamus-pituitary-gonadal (HPG) axis presents a major 16 challenge for medical science. Dysregulation of the HPG axis is linked to infertility and a 17 thorough understanding of its dynamic behaviour is necessary to both aid diagnosis and to 18 identify the most appropriate hormonal interventions. Here, we review how quantitative 19 models are being used in the context of clinical reproductive endocrinology to: 1. analyse the 20 secretory patterns of reproductive hormones; 2. evaluate the effect of drugs in fertility 21 treatment; 3. aid in the personalization of assisted reproductive technology (ART). In this 22 review, we demonstrate that quantitative models are indispensable tools enabling us to 23 describe the complex dynamic behaviour of the reproductive axis, refine treatment of fertility 24 disorders, and predict clinical intervention outcomes.

### 25 Introduction

The reproductive system is a complex endocrine system, involving non-linear feedback and feed-forward interactions conveyed by dynamic hormone signals [1], as well as multifaceted crosstalk with other endocrine axes and the central nervous system [2]. Such complexity makes it challenging to decipher how the system behaves in normal physiological conditions, under acute perturbations, or during chronic disease. To this end, quantitative modelling is an indispensable tool for solidifying our understanding of the system, analysing its dynamic behaviour, and designing medical interventions.

This review aims to provide an update on how quantitative models are being used in the context of clinical reproductive endocrinology (Figure 1). We focus on computational methods that assist in profiling the dynamics of reproductive hormones, mechanistic models that assist the quantitative assessment of drugs in reproductive medicine, as well as machine learning approaches that are currently used in assisted reproductive technology (ART).

# 38 Computational model for the analysis of hormone pulsatile dynamics

39 The hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal (HPG) axis is a complex endocrine system controlling 40 sexual development (throughout fetal, neonatal, and pubertal stages) and reproduction [3]. 41 The system relies on dynamic hormone signals to serve its role. Most notably, gonadotropin-42 releasing hormone (GnRH) is secreted in a pulsatile manner from the hypothalamus into the 43 anterior pituitary gland, and stimulates the release of gonadotropins (luteinizing hormone, 44 LH; and follicle stimulating hormone, FSH), which in turn trigger gonadal processes involved in gametogenesis and sex-steroid production [4]. Hence, pulsatile GnRH dynamics are crucial 45 46 for the onset of puberty and subsequent healthy reproductive function in the adult.

Disruption in the frequency of GnRH/LH pulses is observed in common reproductive disorders, such as polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS), in which the frequency and amplitude of GnRH pulses are increased[5], and hypothalamic amenorrhea (HA), in which GnRH pulses are reduced [6]. Therefore, accurate assessment of hormone pulsatility could facilitate diagnosis and treatment of patients presenting with reproductive endocrine disorders [7].

52 In clinical research, LH is measured as the gold standard surrogate for GnRH (as it is not 53 possible to measure GnRH in the peripheral circulation at high enough levels). Measuring 54 serum levels of LH at regular intervals (e.g., 10 minutely) enables quantification and 55 assessment of pulsatile dynamics. However, analysing hormone pulsatility is challenging as 56 pulse-to-pulse variability combined with measurement error often obscure the underlying 57 hormone dynamics [8]. Several computational methods have been proposed in the literature 58 to facilitate the analysis of LH pulsatility [8-13] (see Table 1). Among these, the deconvolution 59 analysis method is considered the gold-standard in clinical research [8]. The method uses a 60 mathematical model describing the time-varying secretion and clearance dynamics of LH and 61 seeks to fit data and deconvolve the two processes. Data-fitting is achieved via maximum 62 likelihood estimation, providing estimates of the times at which pulses of LH have occurred 63 as well as estimates of the secretion and clearance rates. Bayesian Spectrum Analysis (BSA) 64 presents a different approach to pulsatility analysis, allowing one to quantify the frequency of LH pulses while ignoring mechanistic parameters (e.g., secretion and clearance rates), as 65 66 well as the actual timing of pulses [14, 15]. BSA relies on an abstract model describing generic 67 periodic signals, and estimates the frequency from LH data using Bayesian inference [11]. A key strength of the BSA method is that frequency estimates come in the form of Bayesian 68 69 posterior distributions, facilitating estimation of uncertainty and hypothesis testing. Finally, 70 Bayesian extensions to the deconvolution method [13, 16-18] as well as a recently proposed

- 71 framework for inference of LH dynamics [19] enable Bayesian analysis for LH pulsatility based
- on mechanistic models, providing parameters uncertainty estimation and recovery of latent
- 73 hypothalamic dynamics.
- 74 Table 1. Summary of methods used in LH pulsatility analysis

Method/Tool	Model	Outputs	Open-source	Ref
			Implementation	
Deconvolution	Mechanistic model	Position of pulses and	Unavailable	[8]
analysis		pulse parameters (point		
		estimates)		
Cluster analysis	Statistical pattern	Position of pulses (point	Unavailable	[9]
	matching	estimates)		
DynPeak	Mechanistic model	Position of pulses (point	Python	[10]
		estimates)		
BaSAR	Harmonic functions	Pulse frequency (posterior	R package	[11]
		distribution)		
Bayesian	Mechanistic model	Position of pulses; pulse	Unavailable	[13]
Deconvolution		parameters (posterior		
Analysis	5	distribution)		
HormoneBayes	Mechanistic model	Model parameters;	C++	[19]
		position of pulses		
		(posterior distribution)		

# 75 The potential of Artificial Intelligence in assisted reproductive

76 technology (ART)

The broad field of Artificial intelligence (AI) encompasses machine learning (ML), which specifically refers to statistical models that are leveraged to automatically detect patterns from large and complex datasets in order to make predictions regarding an outcome of

interest [20]. AI and ML methods have a wide scope for improving ART [21-24], which include *in vitro* fertilization (IVF) treatment; a procedure that, for example, inherently requires the
classification and selection of both male and female gametes, as well as several complex
decisions that are made during the cycle with respect to the dosage and timing of hormonal
interventions.

85 Key for the successful application of ML is high quality substantial datasets that contain strong predictors, capture the variance in the population, and are accurately annotated [25, 26]. For 86 this reason, early ML models of predicting live birth after IVF treatment using neural networks 87 88 achieved a modest accuracy (59%) [27], as they relied on small datasets lacking key predictors. 89 More recently, the accuracy of predictive methods trained on richer datasets has increased 90 to 84.4% [28]. Even where ML techniques provide an ability to predict outcomes, some 91 methodologies can remain uninterpretable ('black-box') [26], such that mechanistic insights into the decision processes carried out by such models may not be evident. Others harness 92 93 more explainable methods e.g., random forests [29, 30] or linear regression [31], where the 94 most important predictors can be identified. For example, top predictors of live birth after IVF 95 treatment included female partner age, anti-Müllerian Hormone (AMH) [32], number of high 96 guality embryos, and serum estradiol level (reflective of cumulative follicle size and, in turn, 97 the number of eggs that will be retrieved) on the day of administration of the trigger for 98 oocyte maturation [33].

With the recent influx of literature surrounding the use of AI and ML in ART, there is a clear
interest in the academic community on how such models can be used to improve treatment
strategies in clinical workflows [34].

# 102 Al to support decision-making in *In Vitro* Fertilization (IVF)

103 IVF treatment is a complex procedure involving hormonal interventions to act upon specific processes during the treatment cycle. These include: 1. Ovarian stimulation [35], 2. 104 105 Prevention of premature ovulation [36], 3. Induction of oocyte maturation [29, 30], 4. 106 Fertilization in vitro and embryo selection for transfer [21, 23, 24], to hopefully result in live 107 birth [37]. The timings of these interventions can vary depending on the specific IVF protocol 108 carried out by the clinician [38]. In the initial stages of IVF, preparations containing FSH are 109 used to induce the growth of multiple ovarian follicles, whilst a GnRH antagonist, or 110 continuous non-pulsatile administration of a GnRH agonist (which desensitizes the GnRH 111 receptor), is used to prevent a premature LH surge and in turn untimely ovulation [38]. Once 112 the follicles grow to the required size, a hormonal trigger, namely either human chorionic 113 gonadotropin (hCG) or a GnRH agonist, is administered to provide LH-like exposure and 114 induce oocyte maturation (i.e., eggs attain the capacity for fertilization by losing half of their 115 genetic material as the polar body) [38].

The vast amount of complex data generated before and during an IVF treatment cycle has the potential to be analysed more precisely and objectively using ML techniques. Consequently, there are several processes in the IVF cycle wherein decision-making can potentially benefit from AI pipelines (**Figure 2**), and have been explored in recent literature [39, 40].

120

#### 121 1. Selection of gonadotropin doses for ovarian stimulation

Quantitative modelling can aid in the selection of the appropriate dose of gonadotropins for ovarian stimulation as the ovarian response to the same dose can vary by baseline characteristics such as age and ovarian reserve (represented by AMH level [32] or antral

125 follicle count [41]). There are several algorithms derived to estimate the optimal dose of FSH 126 for ovarian stimulation taking into account baseline factors [42, 43]. Studies using such 127 algorithms, and other markers reflective of ovarian reserve [44-48], have been explored in a 128 systematic review by van Tilborg et al [49]. Excessive dosing can increase the risk of ovarian 129 hyperstimulation syndrome (OHSS), whereas insufficient dosing can increase the risk of a 130 suboptimal ovarian response [50]. Furthermore, a physician's reaction to an insufficient initial 131 response with a subsequent increase in dose can increase variability in follicle sizes and 132 hamper response to triggering oocyte maturation [35]. Therefore, using AI to optimize initial 133 dose, and subsequent dose-adjustment [40], is likely to improve the success of treatment, 134 although the extent of its impact on later outcomes (e.g., live birth rate) remain 135 undetermined [50].

#### 136 2. Prevention of premature ovulation

137 Accurate measurement of LH, FSH, estradiol (E2), and progesterone (P4) levels across the 138 normal cycle facilitated the development of a mechanistic mathematical model of the human 139 menstrual cycle [51], incorporating key interactions in the HPG axis. This model described 140 how timing and dosing of GnRH analogues affect hormonal responses: reproducing clinical 141 findings of Nafarelin (GnRH agonist) delaying ovulation when administered in the early 142 follicular phase, while immediately triggering ovulation if administered in the late follicular 143 phase [52]; and predicting that the length of the delay in ovulation after Cetrorelix (GnRH 144 antagonist) administration in the follicular phase depends on the dose used [53].

Nagaraja et al modelled the inhibitory effect of Cetrorelix (GnRH antagonist) on LH secretion
as well as the induced delay of the LH surge, based on the pharmacokinetics of the drug [36,
54, 55]. Later mathematical models also incorporated mechanistic features of the HPG axis
(such as feedback control from the gonads), hence providing a more complete description of

the endocrine system and predicting the response to both GnRH agonists and antagonists[56].

Further, in the context of using a GnRH antagonist for pituitary downregulation during IVF treatment cycles, Nisal et al were able to present the potential application of a quantitative algorithm using a local pilot study [57]. There is scope for the dose and timing of GnRH antagonist to be personalized according to patient characteristics, using more sophisticated Al and ML techniques. Optimized approaches to dose and timing of downregulatory protocols have the potential to reduce costs whilst maintaining, or even improving, pregnancy outcomes as both over and under-suppression of endogenous LH levels can be deleterious.

158 3. Induction of oocyte maturation

159 The trigger to induce oocyte maturation is administered once follicles grow to the required 160 size to be able to respond appropriately and yield eggs. Typically, simple rules are used to 161 guide the timing of this step, such as at least two to three follicles more than 17 or 18mm in 162 diameter. However, this approach assumes uniform growth of the follicles behind these lead follicles, rather than a more diverse set of follicle sizes [35]. By harnessing ML techniques such 163 164 as bagged decision trees [58], random forests [30], and linear regression [31], found in the 165 literature, the size of follicles on the day of trigger most likely to yield oocytes has been 166 estimated, and indicates the potential to support the optimization of the timing of trigger 167 administration during clinical workflows [39]. Identification of this follicle size range enables 168 the quantification of oocyte maturation [29], and can provide a target for response to 169 gonadotropins when evaluating response to ovarian stimulation. In essence, ML techniques 170 have the potential to increase precision, objectivity, and reproducibility of decision-making 171 during IVF protocols.

#### 172 4. Selection of embryo for transfer

173 An example of complex data generated during IVF treatment is image analysis of embryos 174 growing over several days assessed via time-lapse technology, which has the potential to aid 175 in the selection of embryos that are most likely to implant. This represents a large amount of 176 data which would be challenging and impractical for an embryologist to capture manually [21, 177 22]. Additionally, prediction of outcomes based on oocyte quality has been attempted based 178 on their morphology [59, 60], texture [61-63], and morpho-kinetic [64] information. 179 Furthermore, researchers have shown that the mechanical properties of human zygotes are predictive of embryo survival during the blastocyst stage, allowing one to predict within hours 180 181 after fertilization whether the zygote will arrest with 90% precision [65]. However, the benefit 182 of using AI technology in the embryo selection process has yet to be proven as superior to 183 current means in double-blind randomized controlled trials [66, 67], whereby no significant improvement was shown in clinical pregnancy rates when selecting day five blastocysts for 184 185 transfer with a time-lapse algorithm. These studies highlight the necessity for the accuracy of 186 predictions made via ML techniques to be prospectively tested and validated prior to 187 adoption into clinical practice with appropriate mitigations of study biases [68].

# 188 Conclusions

Quantitative models enable data-driven support in clinical decision-making. In the context of reproductive endocrinology, mechanistic mathematical models enable the analysis of hormone data and the effect of endocrine interventions, while ML models facilitate outcome prediction in ART protocols.

193 Importantly, quantitative models enable us to move away from one-size-fits-all approaches194 and design patient-optimized protocols. Ultimately, this can reduce operational costs by

improving the efficiency and efficacy of treatment to further enhance treatment outcome,
and reduce psychological morbidity associated with unsuccessful treatment. The use of AI in
this context remains nascent, however, is expected to continue to burgeon with the inclusion
of large diverse multi-centre datasets to ensure model generalizability, undergo prospective
validation, as well as presenting viable integration into well-established clinical workflows
[26].

Journal

# 201 Declaration of interests

- 202 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
- 203 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Figure 1: Utility of quantitative models in reproductive medicine. This flowchart provides an overview of the workflow of quantitative modelling in reproductive medicine. The first step involves the collection of data, such as hormonal and imaging data. Mathematical models aid the analysis of the data, facilitating extraction of meaningful information. Furthermore, processed data can be used to develop machine learning models with the aim of optimizing current procedures and protocols. The workflow is iterative enabling the continuous model evaluation and improvement.

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Figure 2: Potential AI-based interventions during IVF cycles. This pipeline outlines the processes carried out during IVF cycles, where interventions using AI and ML techniques could be used to support decision-making. The references provided at each stage indicate literature exploring efforts in quantitative modelling of these stages. The four stages in the figure above correspond to the numbered sections under 'AI to support decision-making in *In Vitro* Fertilization (IVF)'. Of the four stages presented, the first three pertain endocrinological interventions, where optimizations with respect to dose and timing are of value.