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Reproductive medicine: still more ART than science?

J Wilkinson¹, S Bhattacharya², JMN Duffy³,⁴, MS Kamath⁵, J Marjoribanks⁶, S Repping⁷, A Vail¹, M van Wely⁷, CM Farquhar⁶

¹ Centre for Biostatistics, University of Manchester, Manchester, United Kingdom.

² The Institute of Applied Health Sciences, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, United Kingdom.

³ Primary Care Health Sciences, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom.

⁴ Balliol College, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom.

⁵ Reproductive Medicine Unit, Christian Medical College, Vellore, India.

⁶ Cochrane Gynecology and Fertility Group, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand.

⁷ Centre for Reproductive Medicine, Academic Medical Centre, University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

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The history of obstetrics and gynaecology is not a tale of evidence-based practice. Tradition, expert opinion, and the lure of new technology have frequently superseded evidence as the primary driver for clinical decision making. The proof can be found in a litany of dubious interventions which have gained widespread popularity despite an absence of high quality data attesting to their effectiveness and, in some cases, ample credible evidence demonstrating harm. As a specialty, we have relied on investigations including X-ray pelvimetry and antenatal stress tests, subjected innumerable women to stilboestrol and thalidomide, and have performed routine episiotomy in all primigravid women. It is no surprise that, in 1979, Archie Cochrane famously awarded obstetrics the ‘wooden spoon’ for being the least evidence-based specialty.

Reproductive medicine has come a long way since then and there have been dramatic advances in the field such that biological parenthood is a reality for many couples, for whom adoption was the only available route in the past. The gold standard in reproductive medicine is now “to provide childless couples with the best possible management of their fertility problems, while at the same time ensuring that they are not exposed to unnecessary...
risks or ineffective treatments. In order to achieve this standard, we need reliable evidence which can be used to develop clinical practice guidelines. Unfortunately, even where we have good evidence, its uptake is far from universal. This is particularly true in the field of assisted reproduction, which has become increasingly commercialised with a pronounced predilection for overdiagnosis, overuse, and overtreatment.

**Too much treatment?**

One in seven couples will struggle to conceive within a year, and will be labelled as infertile. Yet, population based data show that half of this group will go on to conceive in the next 12 months. Meanwhile, success rates for fertility treatments remain modest, with live birth rates for in vitro fertilisation (IVF) estimated to be in the region of 27% per treatment cycle (https://www.hfea.gov.uk/media/2563/hfea-fertility-trends-and-figures-2017-v2.pdf). Yet, media fuelled unrealistic expectations on the part of couples coupled with skilful marketing by commercial fertility clinics has caused a global explosion in the use of assisted reproductive technology. As few governments fund infertility treatment the private sector is buoyant. Contrary to guidelines, assisted reproductive technology is frequently initiated early-on in couples who still have a reasonable chance of conception, promoting overtreatment, increasing avoidable harm, and increasing healthcare costs. A plethora of essentially unproven add-on interventions are offered to couples in a technological arms race between fertility clinics. Since financial considerations often influence treatment policies, the novelty and apparent sophistication of these new technologies take precedence over proof of effectiveness and safety. For many couples, the additional expense of add-on therapies is itself interpreted as a sign of quality. It is the perfect storm for exploitation.
The gap between clinical practice and evidence

While the absence of evidence in many areas of reproductive medicine remains a problem, blatant disregard for evidence which is available is an inexcusable but all too common phenomenon. One of the most notable and regrettable examples of ignoring evidence in assisted reproductive technology is the persistent practice of transferring two or more embryos at a time. This option appears attractive to many couples, who see it as a means to maximise their chances while obviating the need for further treatment to have a second child. Some IVF clinics continue to support this practice on grounds of patient autonomy, whilst downplaying the considerable maternal, fetal, neonatal, and childhood risks associated with multiple pregnancy. Although multiple pregnancy is almost completely preventable by the practice of single embryo transfer, many healthcare providers across the United Kingdom, Europe, and North America continue to transfer multiple embryos. One explanation is that IVF is often self-funded whilst maternity and neonatal care are often covered by the state or by insurance companies. If the same funder paid not only for IVF but also for maternity and neonatal care, then there would be a strong incentive to reduce multiple pregnancies in order to avoid increases in fetal, neonatal, and childhood morbidity and the attendant costs. In 2005, New Zealand increased funding for IVF from one cycle to two provided that a single embryo transfer strategy was used. As a result, New Zealand now has the lowest rate of IVF-related multiple pregnancies (4%) in the world (https://npesu.unsw.edu.au/surveillance/assisted-reproductive-technology-australia-and-new-zealand-2015).

Another example where common practice defies the evidence is the expansion of intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI), originally designed for men with very poor semen quality, to include couples where the semen parameters are normal. Indeed, it has now become the dominant form of in vitro fertilisation in many countries. The Cochrane review of in vitro
fertilisation versus intra-cytoplasmic sperm injection for non-male infertility includes a single randomised trial involving 415 couples which reported 70/213 ongoing pregnancies following in vitro fertilisation compared to 51/202 in the intra-cytoplasmic sperm injection group (Odds ratio 1.44, 95% confidence interval 0.95 to 2.21) \(^\text{11}\). Data from a subsequent Canadian study which randomised 60 women with unexplained infertility to in vitro fertilisation or intra-cytoplasmic sperm injection failed to show a statistically significant difference in live birth rate \(^\text{12}\). In this context it is the focus on a surrogate outcome (fertilisation rate) rather than the clinical outcome (live birth) which has presumably influenced clinical decision making; trials of randomised oocytes suggest that a strategy of ICSI in non-male infertility could reduce the number of cases of total fertilisation failure, but an improvement in live births has not been demonstrated. Similarly, preimplantation genetic testing and time lapse systems for embryo incubation are becoming routine practice in many clinics, despite a lack of robust evidence of clinical benefit \(^\text{13, 14}\).

**Marketing trumps informed patient choice**

The primary criterion used by many people with infertility to select an IVF clinic is its success rate. In order to be competitive, fertility clinics must convince couples that the path to parenthood leads through their doors. But there is a clear tension between direct to consumer advertising of assisted reproductive technology and informed patient choice. Clinics frequently wield emotive language and creative statistics to persuade rather than to inform \(^\text{16, 17}\). Websites speak of ‘dreams’ and ‘miracles’ \(^\text{16}\), while bespoke success rates can be constructed from a large array of statistics in order to cast a clinic’s performance in a favourable light \(^\text{17}\). Due to a lack of binding standards on assisted reproductive technology outcome reporting, couples may be misled about the likelihood of success and may compare clinics on the basis of incomparable figures. Self-regulation does not appear to furnish
couples with impartial information regarding the effectiveness of different treatment interventions.

**Challenges for evidence-based assisted reproductive technology**

Before being implemented as routine, any assisted reproductive technology intervention should undergo preclinical and clinical trials, followed by randomised controlled trials (RCTs) to prove efficacy and safety, with long-term follow up to evaluate ongoing effectiveness and safety. However, in assisted reproductive technology, eagerness to identify attractive new interventions has led to a quantity over quality approach to RCTs. Consequently, the clinical effectiveness of interventions is often not robustly assessed. A pivotal limitation is the size of the trials undertaken. In order to achieve 80% power to detect an improvement in birth rate from 27% to 32% at a 5% significance threshold, a trial size of 2,610 women is required. This far exceeds the numbers of women we actually see in the vast majority of in vitro fertilisation trials. Routinely collected data and large electronic databases have been touted as a solution but the absence of random allocation introduces doubt regarding the accuracy of any conclusions drawn. These are essentially large-scale observational studies, and do not offer a free pass to assisted reproductive technology treatment evaluation.

In principle, the machinery of meta-analysis offers a means to overcome the limitations of small individual trials, but this is predicated on sufficient cumulative sample sizes after pooling studies. The trend to ‘test’ many interventions in small trials does not guarantee this will hold. Moreover, if trials do not report outcomes in a consistent fashion, meta-analysis is precluded. Recent reviews of reporting standards in this field suggest that they do not. Moreover, many trials measure outcomes in such a way that the benefits of randomisation are lost, and many fail to report cumulative birth rates per couple, which is probably the most relevant outcome for patients. The need to establish statistically valid, patient-centred...
outcome measures is the motivation behind the Core Outcome Measures for Infertility Trials (COMMIT) project, which will establish core outcomes to be reported in all assisted reproductive technology trials (https://www.phc.ox.ac.uk/research/hypertension/pregnancy/commit). Fewer, larger RCTs developed through priority-sharing partnerships and enabled by clinical trial networks committed to the use of common reporting standards will ensure high quality evidence with maximum clinical utility. A new priority setting partnership has been established for infertility aiming to bring together professionals, researchers, and people with infertility to prioritise unanswered research questions (www.phc.ox.ac.uk/infertility). In Table 1, we present our top ten research gaps in reproductive medicine.

Conclusions:

How to introduce new technologies in reproductive medicine responsibly?

With respect to new assisted reproductive technologies, our responsibility extends beyond the couples we treat to the wellbeing of future generations. Under the status quo however, robust evidence of effectiveness and safety is not a prerequisite for adoption of novel interventions[added Harper 2017 here]. One solution to the trend for treatment to be delivered in defiance of evidence would be stronger regulatory standards governing the introduction of new therapies in assisted reproductive technology. A study on the acceptability of regulating such techniques found broad support from clinicians, patients and the general public for regulation of new reproductive technologies by a national bioethics committee, which would consult with advisors from various backgrounds. We are not sympathetic to the argument that a requirement for rigorous prospective treatment evaluation would impede progress in the field, since it is not at all clear that a ‘right to try’ philosophy, where treatments are sold to vulnerable people on a speculative basis, benefits anyone other than the people making the sale, and may well cause harm. Until the time comes when we insist that generation of evidence precedes implementation of new
technologies rather than follows it, reproductive medical research will be largely preoccupied with reversing perverse practice. We believe that this ongoing need for medical reversal in reproductive medicine is the real enemy of progress.

Disclosure of interests

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Contributions of authors

All authors devised and wrote the manuscript, and gave approval for submission.

Details of ethical approval

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References


Table 1: Ten research gaps in reproductive medicine

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Interventions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In women with unexplained subfertility</td>
<td>What is the effect of IVF versus expectant management</td>
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<tr>
<td>In men with azoospermia and severe oligospermia</td>
<td>What is the evidence for available screening tests (e.g. genetic testing, ultrasound, screening for cancer, others)</td>
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<tr>
<td>In women with repeated IVF failure</td>
<td>What is the effect of different treatment adjuncts such as endometrial scratch, hysteroscopy, immunoglobulin, G-CSF</td>
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<tr>
<td>In women having IVF who are undergoing frozen embryo cycles</td>
<td>What is the optimal regimen (e.g. endometrial preparation, triggering, luteal phase support)</td>
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<tr>
<td>In women having IVF and undergoing final oocyte maturation</td>
<td>What is the effect of Gn RhA trigger versus HcG trigger</td>
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<tr>
<td>In men with reduced semen quality</td>
<td>What is the most optimal treatment modality in relation to the semen quality (expectant management, IUI, IVF or ICSI)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In women having IVF</td>
<td>What is the effect of cleavage stage versus blastocyst transfer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In women having IVF</td>
<td>What is the optimal culture environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In women having IVF and their children</td>
<td>What is the long term effect (over &gt; 20 years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In women having IVF</td>
<td>What is the optimal embryo selection method (morphology, genetic testing (PGS), time-lapse algorithm)?</td>
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