

1 **New debate: is it time for infertility weight loss programmes to**
2 **be couple-based?**

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4 Running title: Should weight loss programmes be couple based?

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20 **Abstract**

21 With obesity on the rise in the general population, it has also become more
22 prevalent among people of reproductive age. Weight loss has shown benefits in
23 overweight women and men experiencing fertility problems. However, the existing
24 weight loss interventions for individuals with infertility are associated with high
25 drop-out rates and limited success. In this article, we argue for the development of
26 weight loss programmes targeting couples, as couples are routinely seen in fertility
27 clinics, rather than individuals. Couples may have correlated weights, and similar
28 eating and activity patterns. Involving both partners may facilitate mutual support,
29 behaviour change, weight loss, and programme continuation, at very little additional
30 cost. A successful couple-based intervention could improve the chances of achieving
31 pregnancy and delivering a healthy baby, with a reduction in pregnancy
32 complications. In the longer run, both partners and their baby could benefit from
33 maintained behaviour change with better health across the lifespan. We conclude
34 that there is a need for research to systematically develop a couple-based weight
35 loss intervention with state-of-the-art design that is tailored to both partners' needs.

36 **Keywords:** body mass index / BMI / fertility / weight loss / couple-based
37 intervention / couples / obesity / overweight / pregnancy

38

39 **Introduction**

40 With obesity on the rise in the general population (World Health Organization,
41 2016), it has also become more prevalent among people experiencing fertility
42 problems (Vahratian and Smith, 2009). It is widely recognised that being
43 overweight in the face of central adiposity may contribute to delayed conception.
44 Much of the prevailing literature uses weight and body mass index (BMI) as
45 surrogates for adiposity, and while muscle mass may increase these measures,
46 persons with BMI of 30 kg/m² or more mostly have excess body fat, as do as many
47 as 50% of those below (Romero-Corral *et al.*, 2008).

48

49 In women, insulin resistance secondary to overweight and obesity can disrupt
50 ovulation through its effect on the sex hormone pathway, as well as through leptin
51 and other adipokines (Klenov and Jungheim, 2014; Zain and Norman, 2008; Pantasri
52 and Norman, 2014). Oocyte quality may also be compromised (Klenov and
53 Jungheim, 2014), as embryos derived from the oocytes of obese women have been
54 noted to be of poorer quality (Carrell *et al.*, 2001; Metwally *et al.*, 2007; Metwally *et*
55 *al.*, 2007). High body mass index may also affect endometrial quality and
56 implantation, as obese recipients of oocytes from normal weight donors are less
57 likely to conceive following in-vitro fertilisation (IVF) than normal weight recipients
58 (Bellver *et al.*, 2007).

59

60 In men, increased body weight may also compromise fertility. Excessive lower
61 abdominal fat can increase testicular temperature during episodes of prolonged
62 sitting, which may have implications for spermatogenesis (Hammoud *et al.*, 2012).
63 Obese men have been shown to have increased oestrogen levels, with disruption of
64 the hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal axis (Shukla *et al.*, 2014; Schneider *et al.*, 1979;
65 Schneider *et al.*, 1979). Such high circulating oestrogen levels have also been shown
66 to have a deleterious effect on spermatogenesis in animal studies (Goyal O *et al.*,
67 2003). In humans, higher BMI and more central adiposity are associated with
68 reduced sperm concentration, lower total motile sperm count (Eisenberg *et al.*,
69 2014; Hammiche *et al.*, 2012; Hakonsen *et al.*, 2011; Hammiche *et al.*, 2012;
70 Hakonsen *et al.*, 2011) and abnormal sperm morphology (Hammiche *et al.*, 2012;
71 Hakonsen *et al.*, 2011; Hakonsen *et al.*, 2011). In a systematic review investigating
72 the impact of BMI on sperm parameters (Sermondade *et al.*, 2013) across 21 studies
73 and 13,007 men attending fertility clinics, oligozoospermia and azoospermia were
74 more common among overweight (OR 1.11, 95% confidence interval(CI) 1.01-1.21),
75 obese (OR 1.28, 95% CI 1.06, 1.55), and morbidly obese men (OR 2.04, 95% CI 1.59-
76 2.62) (Sermondade *et al.*, 2013).

77

78 Few researchers have studied the association between weight and fertility in both
79 partners. One study of 47,835 couples sought to explore the effect of obesity on
80 couple infertility, over and above the effects on each individual (Ramlau-Hansen *et al.*, 2007). Among couples where both partners were either overweight or obese, the
81 adjusted odds of a delay of over one year in achieving pregnancy were 1.41 (95% CI
82

83 1.28, 1.56) for overweight and 2.74 (95% CI 2.27, 3.30) for obese couples, compared
84 to normal weight couples, with a dose-response relationship with increasing BMI.
85 Obesity in both partners was associated with greater difficulty achieving pregnancy
86 (Ramlau-Hansen *et al.*, 2007). Another study found that couples where both
87 partners' BMI exceeded 35.0 kg/m² experienced a delay in time to pregnancy, or
88 reduced fecundity, when compared to couples with a BMI below 25 kg/m² (adjusted
89 fecundity odds ratio aFOR 0.41; 95% CI: 0.17, 0.98) (Sundaram *et al.*, 2017).

90

91 For assisted conception, it would appear that IVF live birth rates (Petersen *et al.*,
92 2013), but not those with intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) (Petersen *et al.*,
93 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2016), might be reduced by couple obesity, though further
94 research seems warranted to confirm whether this is truly the case (Schliep *et al.*,
95 2015).

96

97 **Potential benefits of weight loss**

98 Weight loss has shown benefits in overweight women and men experiencing fertility
99 problems (Best, 2016). In overweight women, a weight loss of 10% or more has
100 been shown to improve insulin resistance (Zain and Norman, 2008), spontaneous
101 pregnancy (Lan *et al.*, 2017; Mutsaerts *et al.*, 2016; Duval *et al.*, 2015) and live birth
102 rates (Kort *et al.*, 2014). A reduction of body weight by 2-5% has been associated
103 with restoration of ovulation and a 71% increase in insulin sensitivity (Huber-
104 Buchholz *et al.*, 1999). Weight loss exceeding 3 kg has been associated with an
105 improvement in the numbers of mature oocytes retrieved in IVF cycles (Chavarro *et*

106 *al.*, 2012). However, it is uncertain whether this translates into improved pregnancy
107 or live birth rates in these cycles, as some studies suggest no added benefit
108 (Einarsson *et al.*, 2017; Moran *et al.*, 2011; Chavarro *et al.*, 2012; Moran *et al.*, 2011),
109 while others do (Clark *et al.*, 1998; Sim *et al.*, 2014a). In obese men, a weight loss
110 programme was associated with improvement in semen quality (Hakonsen *et al.*,
111 2011), while a dietary programme resulted in reduced abdominal fat, decreased
112 sperm DNA fragmentation, and improvement in metabolic and hormone profiles,
113 with all spouses in the latter case series becoming pregnant (Faure *et al.*, 2014). In a
114 prospective uncontrolled pilot study (Homan *et al.*, 2012), 23 infertile couples
115 received motivational face-to-face interviews on an on-going basis with one to two
116 weekly phone calls over four months. The weight loss achieved was not precisely
117 described, but 47% were reported to having “a modest loss of between 1 and 5 kg”.
118 Eight of the twenty-three couples conceived by the end of the follow-up period
119 (Homan *et al.*, 2012).

120

121 **Individual-based weight-loss interventions**

122 Weight loss requires dietary modification, with or without a change in physical
123 activity, to induce a caloric deficit resulting in the body metabolising fat. Individual-
124 based programmes described in the literature to improve fertility have utilized such
125 strategies as low calorie diets, usually low in fat and saturated fat and added sugars,
126 (Turner-McGrievy *et al.*, 2014; Qublan *et al.*, 2007; Mavropoulos *et al.*, 2005;
127 Thomson *et al.*, 2009; Qublan *et al.*, 2007; Mavropoulos *et al.*, 2005; Thomson *et al.*,
128 2009), low glycaemic index diets (Becker *et al.*, 2015), very low calorie diets (Kiddy

129 *et al.*, 1992; Tsagareli *et al.*, 2006; van Dam *et al.*, 2004; Tsagareli *et al.*, 2006; van
130 Dam *et al.*, 2004), and a variety of different diets with exercise (Karimzadeh and
131 Javedani, 2010; Moran *et al.*, 2011; Moran *et al.*, 2003; Thomson *et al.*, 2008; Salama
132 *et al.*, 2015; Khaskheli *et al.*, 2013; Hollman *et al.*, 1996; Mahoney, 2014; Mutsaerts
133 *et al.*, 2016; Sim *et al.*, 2014b; De Frene *et al.*, 2015; Miller *et al.*, 2008; Moran *et al.*,
134 2011; Moran *et al.*, 2003; Thomson *et al.*, 2008; Salama *et al.*, 2015; Khaskheli *et al.*,
135 2013; Hollman *et al.*, 1996; Mahoney, 2014; Mutsaerts *et al.*, 2016; Sim *et al.*, 2014b;
136 De Frene *et al.*, 2015; Miller *et al.*, 2008). Motivational interviewing has also been
137 described as a useful tool (Koning, 2015; Karlsen *et al.*, 2013; Karlsen *et al.*, 2013).

138

139 Poor programme compliance has been a problem in many weight loss programmes.
140 In a systematic review of discontinuation rates in such interventions among obese
141 infertile women (Mutsaerts *et al.*, 2013), 10 of 15 studies reported discontinuation,
142 with the median discontinuation rate at 24% (range 0-31%). The programmes
143 ranged from 6-32 weeks in duration, with a median of 24 weeks. Given the small
144 number of studies, it was difficult to identify correlates of discontinuation, but the
145 authors noted that weight loss and pregnancy rates were lower in non-compliant
146 persons (Mutsaerts *et al.*, 2013). Two studies suggest that very stringent diets (e.g.,
147 vegan or low-carbohydrate ketogenic) may be particularly hard to follow with even
148 higher discontinuation rates than less restricted diets (Turner-McGrievy *et al.*, 2014;
149 Mavropoulos *et al.*, 2005; Mavropoulos *et al.*, 2005). Studies aiming to improve
150 motivation seem to achieve greater success. Two programmes integrated
151 motivational interviewing and had relatively low discontinuation rates of 10.6% at 6

152 months (Mutsaerts *et al.*, 2016), and 10.9%, respectively (Koning, 2015). An
153 exercise programme for obese infertile women to improve psychological well-being
154 (Galletly *et al.*, 1996) showed a discontinuation rate of 33.3%, with women who
155 dropped out having higher anxiety and depression scores and lower self-esteem at
156 baseline. In summary, weight loss interventions which are mainly focussed on the
157 individual, have high discontinuations rates, even for patients thought to be
158 motivated in order to improve their fertility, and this results in less weight loss
159 associated with lower pregnancy rates.

160

161 **The rationale for a couple-based intervention**

162 Partner support in everyday life may facilitate behaviour change and continuation in
163 programmes. Infertility clinics are relatively unique in medicine, as they
164 accommodate the needs of couples rather than individuals. Partners support each
165 other during treatment and the emotional upheavals engendered by it. Where
166 weight loss is required as part of their management, it is reasonable to expect that
167 this support would be useful, particularly in facilitating programme continuation.
168 Perhaps it is time to consider the development of weight loss programmes targeting
169 couples, rather than individuals.

170

171 **Couples may have similar weight and eating and activity patterns**

172 Couples tend to have similar body mass indices, and weight change in one partner
173 can go hand in hand with weight change in the other. A systematic review (Di
174 Castelnovo *et al.*, 2009) found correlations between partners with regards to BMI

175 ($r = 0.15$ across 34,582 couples in 19 studies) and weight ($r = 0.11$ across 6,765
176 couples in 9 studies). A representative study of 11,979 Dutch couples replicated
177 correlations for BMI between partners ($r = 0.23$) (Monden, 2007). A study including
178 3356 expectant couples attending antenatal clinics (Edvardsson *et al.*, 2013) found
179 a positive partner correlation for BMI ($r = 0.21$). A woman's odds of being obese
180 were more than six times higher if their partner was also obese, in comparison with
181 women whose partner was of normal weight (OR 6.2, 95% CI 4.2-9.3). More than
182 one third (37.8%, $p < 0.001$) of couples in a study investigating semen parameters
183 were concordant for obesity (Polotsky *et al.*, 2015). A Danish population cohort
184 study reported that couples presenting for IVF resembled each other in BMI, though
185 they did not supply supportive data (Petersen *et al.*, 2013). In a study of weight
186 change in 3722 older couples, the probability of weight loss in women was 36%
187 when the partner also lost weight compared to 15% if the partner's weight was
188 static (Jackson *et al.*, 2015).

189

190 Weight correlations between partners may be attributed to similar eating and
191 activity patterns. For example, an 18-month home-based weight loss trial with 132
192 couples found concordance in daily caloric intake, food intake, including that outside
193 the home, physical activity and sedentary behaviours between partners (Scherr and
194 Gorin, 2011). Prior epidemiological studies have found concordance in many health
195 behaviours in couples, including physical activity and diet (Brummett *et al.*, 2008;
196 Meyler *et al.*, 2007; Homish and Leonard, 2008; Pachucki *et al.*, 2011; Simonen *et al.*,
197 2002; Wilson, 2002) The main barriers to exercise reported by women in another

198 study (Banting *et al.*, 2014) were lack of time and fatigue, and their main physical
199 activity supports were their partners (Banting *et al.*, 2014). This compels us to
200 consider whether couple-based interventions might in fact be more useful than
201 individual interventions.

202

203 **Partner involvement may facilitate behaviour change, programme**
204 **continuation, and prove cost-effective**

205 Social support from close others has been a long-standing treatment
206 recommendation for weight loss interventions (Brownell, 1984; Kalodner and Lucia,
207 1990; Look AHEAD Research Group *et al.*, 2006; Perri *et al.*, 2008; Kalodner and
208 Lucia, 1990; Look AHEAD Research Group *et al.*, 2006; Perri *et al.*, 2008). Existing
209 trials involving partners often show greater weight loss effects with interventions
210 involving persons participating with family members rather than individually
211 (Cousins *et al.*, 1992; Black and Lantz, 1984; Murphy *et al.*, 1982; Pearce *et al.*, 1981;
212 Rosenthal *et al.*, 1980; Wing *et al.*, 1991; Avenell *et al.*, 2004; McLean *et al.*, 2003;
213 Black and Lantz, 1984; Murphy *et al.*, 1982; Pearce *et al.*, 1981; Rosenthal *et al.*,
214 1980; Wing *et al.*, 1991; Avenell *et al.*, 2004; McLean *et al.*, 2003). Involving support
215 partners proved beneficial, particularly if the partners actively participated in the
216 programme (Kumanyika *et al.*, 2009) and if they also lost weight (Gorin *et al.*, 2005).
217 Couple-based interventions may be an effective and cost-effective public health
218 approach, as two individuals could lose weight as inexpensively as one (Black and
219 Threlfall, 1989).

220

221 Trial data illustrate the fact that partners may facilitate behaviour change and
222 weight loss. A meta-analysis in 1990 compared behavioural weight-control
223 programmes involving partners to individual programmes (Black *et al.*, 1990). The
224 programmes contained couples with both concordant and discordant need for
225 weight loss. The authors concluded that couple based programmes were superior to
226 individual interventions immediately post treatment (estimated effect size = 0.331,
227 95% CI 0.13, 0.54; $p < 0.05$), and at 2- to 3-months' follow-up (estimated effect size =
228 0.279, 95% CI 0.008, 0.566; $p = 0.06$), though the latter did not reach statistical
229 significance. Participants in a small weight loss trial ($N = 23$) lost more weight when
230 their partners had normal weight than when their partners were overweight (at 12
231 months: 12.7 kg vs. 9.2 kg; at 15 months: 13.4 kg vs. 7.9 kg) (Black and Threlfall,
232 1989), supporting the argument for couple enrolment, even when one partner has
233 no excess weight to lose.

234

235
236 Another small trial (N = 29) of overweight men and women found greater weight
237 loss at 6 months when the partner was cooperative and participated in the
238 programme (13.4 kg) than when the programme was delivered individually, either
239 with a cooperative partner (8.8 kg) or a non-cooperative partner (6.9 kg) (Brownell
240 *et al.*, 1978). Participants in this couple intervention reported that mutual
241 monitoring was key in the early weeks of the programme, and subsequent support
242 and encouragement from their partner enabled them to adhere (Brownell *et al.*,
243 1978). One further small trial (N = 49) found that overweight women, but not men,
244 with diabetes lost more weight when enrolled with their spouses (Wing *et al.*, 1991).
245 Lastly, 393 UK council employees were enrolled in a large trial to reduce the levels
246 of saturated fat in their diets, either individually or with their partner (Prestwich *et*
247 *al.*, 2014). Participants receiving the partner-based intervention increased the ratio
248 of 'good' fats to 'bad' fats at 3 and 6 months, and also managed to decrease their
249 waist circumference more than those receiving the individual intervention (effect
250 size not given; $p = 0.04$).

251

252 **Preparation for parenthood as a teachable moment for adopting a healthier**
253 **lifestyle with long-term benefits for both partners and their baby**

254 A successful weight loss intervention could improve the chances of achieving
255 pregnancy and delivering a healthy baby (Best, 2016) via higher spontaneous
256 pregnancy rates (Lan *et al.*, 2017; Mutsaerts *et al.*, 2016; Duval *et al.*, 2015) and
257 possibly better IVF treatment outcomes (Clark *et al.*, 1998; Sim *et al.*, 2014a),

258 including fewer pregnancy complications (The Royal Australian and New Zealand
259 College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists, 2011) and more live births (Kort *et al.*,
260 2014). In the longer run, both partners in addition to their baby could benefit from
261 maintained behaviour change with better health across the lifespan. A healthy
262 weight is related to lower risk for cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes, and all-
263 cause mortality (National Clinical Guideline Centre, 2014). Weight loss is related to
264 reduced incidence of Type 2 diabetes in women and men (Avenell *et al.*, 2004;
265 Robertson *et al.*, 2014) and erectile dysfunction in men (Robertson *et al.*, 2014). The
266 point at which couples experience fertility problems could thus become a teachable
267 moment for long-term changes towards a healthier lifestyle, with benefits to the
268 couple and their family over their life course (Cohen *et al.*, 2011).

269

270 **What is needed for a couple-based intervention?**

271 **Need for a systematic approach to intervention development**

272 The existing studies have a number of weaknesses. First, most suffered from small
273 sample sizes. Second, few studies have been conducted outside the United States.
274 Strong cultural differences in eating, physical activity, and close relationships call for
275 adequately powered studies in other countries to establish the generalizability of
276 these findings. Third, most studies were not based on systematic intervention
277 development such as an intervention mapping approach (Eldredge *et al.*, 2016).
278 Studies based on systematic intervention development draw on theory and
279 behaviour change methods; thus, they have the potential to focus interventions on
280 the active ingredients of behaviour change, and systematically improve intervention

281 effect sizes and weight loss maintenance. In summary, the current evidence
282 underlines the need for systematic intervention development in this field.

283

284 **Need for a tailored intervention**

285 A weight loss intervention for couples seeking fertility treatment would need to be
286 tailored to the individual needs of both partners. If both partners are obese or
287 overweight, the intervention would need to focus on weight loss in both partners.
288 For non-obese partners, the intervention would focus on supporting weight loss in
289 the obese partner and changing relevant health behaviours for the non-obese
290 partner, for example, eating a healthier diet or becoming more active.

291

292 **Need for measures to maximize retention**

293 As stated above, a prior review of intervention studies for overweight and obese
294 infertile women had a median discontinuation rate of 24% (Mutsaerts *et al.*, 2013),
295 with lesser weight loss and fewer spontaneous pregnancies in dropouts compared
296 to retained participants. Measures to maximize retention will therefore be critical in
297 the design of future lifestyle interventions for infertile women and their partners.
298 These could encompass tailored information and behavioural recommendations
299 based on participants' prior knowledge and preferences (e.g., offering individualized
300 sessions to develop behavioural recommendations).

301

302 **Need to address a comprehensive set of behavioural outcomes for fertility**

303 An intervention for overweight partners should include standard recommendations
304 for a calorie-reduced diet, and could include meal replacements, dependent on
305 participant preference. Prior trials have found that exercise alone has minimal
306 effects on weight loss (Franz *et al.*, 2007). However, exercise may help to maintain
307 weight loss, and may be important to include, particularly for its ability to appeal to
308 the male partner (Robertson *et al.*, 2014). Thus, the intervention should include a
309 behavioural goal to increase physical activity, such as gradually increasing walking
310 towards a daily 10,000-step goal, or by taking at least 30 minutes of moderate-to-
311 vigorous activity per day. Non-overweight partners could receive a standard
312 recommendation to eat a healthy diet and increase physical activity, if necessary.
313 Because general recommendations for infertile couples' treatment include advice
314 regarding alcohol and smoking, the intervention should include elements to support
315 either partner in quitting these habits as required. Last, but not least, a couples'
316 intervention could also include a module to improve social processes to facilitate
317 behaviour change.

318

319 **Need for a better understanding of underlying social processes in weight loss**

320 Few trials so far have assessed the underlying social processes in weight loss, even
321 with inclusion of social network members in some studies. Therefore, there is ample
322 room for improvement in delineating active ingredients and optimising these
323 interventions. Behaviour change methods aimed at changing social support and
324 social influence should boost effects when a behaviour is at least partly influenced

325 by the social environment (Eldredge *et al.*, 2016). Baseline data from a weight loss
326 trial in women (Kiernan *et al.*, 2012) found low support from family and friends.
327 Many women reported “never” or “rarely” receiving support for healthy eating
328 (from family: 77.9%, from friends: 90.3%) or for physical activity (from family:
329 77.2%, from friends: 87.6%). Women also reported some sabotaging behaviour
330 from close others, e.g., they “ate high-fat or unhealthy foods in front of me” or they
331 “refused to eat healthy or low-fat foods with me”.

332

333 The few available trials including partners have used a variety of intervention
334 approaches. These have included partner training for social support to increase
335 positive reinforcement (e.g. praise), role modelling healthier eating, setting goals,
336 and focusing on problem solving; also reduction of negative social control including
337 criticism, punishment, and nagging (McLean *et al.*, 2003). To identify the social
338 processes most relevant to couples seeking fertility treatment, it will be necessary to
339 study support, but also processes that have received less attentions such as social
340 control, companionship, person-to-person contact, and access to resources and
341 material goods (Berkman *et al.*, 2000). Skilled support and positive influence should
342 facilitate behaviour change (Rafaeli and Gleason, 2009; Scholz *et al.*, 2013; Cutrona
343 and Russell, 1990; Scholz *et al.*, 2013; Cutrona and Russell, 1990). Diminishing
344 negative control and sabotaging behaviours (e.g., tempting the dieting partner with
345 high-caloric food) should benefit weight loss additionally (Gorin *et al.*, 2014). Last
346 but not least, the intervention should also promote relationship-strengthening
347 behaviours such as companionship and emotional and physical intimacy (e.g. date

348 nights, joint fun activities) to counter the distress and irritability that accompanies
349 attempts at behaviour change.

350

351 **A weight-loss intervention will need state-of-the art methodology**

352 It is feasible and acceptable to use real-time assessments via smartphone apps,
353 passive sensors, and text messages in individuals and couples. Examples have been
354 given for diet (Inauen *et al.*, 2016), physical activity (Berli *et al.*, 2016), alcohol
355 intake (Muench *et al.*, 2017), and for smoking. These assessments could boost
356 intervention effects and facilitate the maintenance of behaviour change. These
357 methods should be tested in couples experiencing fertility problems, underscoring
358 the need for careful pilot work during intervention development.

359

360 **Conclusion**

361 Overweight and obesity in both men and women attending infertility clinics is a
362 growing challenge. Accumulating evidence demonstrates the effects of weight on
363 reproductive function, and the benefits of weight loss in both sexes. Individual
364 interventions for weight loss in women are often unsuccessful - mainly due to lack
365 of compliance. A couple-based intervention may achieve more efficient weight loss
366 at little additional cost and promises considerable public health benefits. Further
367 clinical trials are warranted to develop and evaluate such an intervention in terms
368 of efficacy, cost and compliance.

369

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381 **Conflicts of Interest**

382 AA, DB, GS and SB have no conflicts of interest to declare.

383

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