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Journal Pre-proof



Predicting the outcomes of assisted reproductive technology treatments: A systematic review and quality assessment of prediction models

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1 **Predicting the outcomes of assisted reproductive technology treatments: A systematic**
2 **review and quality assessment of prediction models**

3

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19

20

21 **Short title:** Predicting assisted conception outcomes

22

23 **Capsule (30):**

24 We reviewed and evaluated 120 prediction models published over the last 24 years. We
25 identified twelve externally validated models that could be used to advise couples undergoing
26 fertility treatments.

27

28

Journal Pre-proof

29 **Abstract (250):**

30 **Objective:** Predicting the outcomes of assisted reproductive technology (ART) treatments is
31 desirable, but adopting prediction models into clinical practice remains limited. We aimed to
32 review available prediction models for ART treatments by conducting a systematic review of
33 the literature to identify the best performing models for their accuracy, generalisability and
34 applicability.

35 **Evidence review:** We searched electronic databases (MEDLINE, EMBASE, and
36 CENTRAL) until June 2020. We included studies reporting on the development or evaluation
37 of models predicting the reproductive outcomes before (pre-ART) or after starting (Intra-
38 ART) treatment in couples undergoing any ART treatment. We evaluated the models'
39 discrimination, calibration, type of validation, and any implementation tools for clinical
40 practice.

41 **Results:** We included 69 cohort studies reporting on 120 unique prediction models. Half the
42 studies reported on pre-ART (48%) and half on intra-ART (56%) prediction models. The
43 commonest predictors used were maternal age (90%), tubal factor subfertility (50%), and
44 embryo quality (60%).

45 Only fourteen models were externally-validated (14/120, 12%) including eight pre-ART
46 models (Templeton, Nelson, LaMarca, McLernon, Arvis, and the Stolwijk A/I,C,II models),
47 and five intra-ART models (Cai, Hunault, van Loendersloot, Meijerink, Stolwijk B, and the
48 McLernon post-treatment model) with a reported c-statistics ranging from 0.50 to 0.78. Ten
49 of these models provided implementation tools for clinical practice with only two reported
50 online calculators.

51 **Conclusion:** We identified externally validated prediction models that could be used to
52 advise couples undergoing ART treatments on their reproductive outcomes. The quality of

53 available models remains limited and more research is needed to improve their
54 generalizability and applicability into clinical practice.

55
56 **Keywords:** infertility, prediction, assisted reproduction, systematic review.

57

58 **Highlights:**

- 59 - Over the last 24 years a high number of studies attempted to produce useful prediction
60 models and decision aids for clinicians and patients undergoing ART.
- 61 - In this review we evaluated 69 studies reporting on 120 unique prediction models, but
62 only a minority of these models were externally validated or useful in clinical
63 practice.
- 64 - Most of these models suffered from a high risk of bias driven by poor model
65 development, data sampling and analysis methodology.
- 66 - More research is needed to leverage available data, refine published models, and
67 increase their applicability in clinical practice using novel technology such as
68 artificial intelligence and dynamic intra-treatment prediction modelling.

69

70

71 Introduction

72 Assisted reproductive technology (ART) has evolved over the last 40 years offering hope to a
73 record number of infertile couples worldwide (1–3). Currently ART is the first port of call
74 for many couples inclusive of those experiencing unexplained and reversible causes of
75 subfertility such as mild male factor and unilateral tubal pathology. The birth rate with
76 assisted conception increased steadily over the last few decades from an average of 9% in
77 1991 to 23% in 2018 (4). This mass adoption of ART, however, sparked the debate on the
78 ethical use of some ART treatments (5), their cost-effectiveness, and the risk of profiteering
79 to certain patient groups (6). Accurate prediction of clinical outcomes and any mitigating risk
80 factors could help to rationalize the use of ART treatments and improve their clinical
81 effectiveness (7). While many prediction models have been produced to aid clinicians and
82 couples in planning their fertility treatments, implementing those models remains limited in
83 practice (8).

84

85 To be used effectively, prediction models should undergo rigorous development, validation,
86 and impact assessment (9,10). Unsurprisingly, few published models complete this process
87 which limits their clinical value and increase research wastage (7,8,11). Advances in data
88 gathering and statistical methodology using machine learning and artificial intelligence could
89 help to streamline the development and validation process of prediction models, but such
90 practice remains limited in reproductive medicine (12).

91

92 Our aim was to systematically review and evaluate the performance, generalisability and
93 applicability of published prediction models for ART treatments to identify the best
94 performing models that could be used in clinical practice.

95

96 Methods

97 We conducted this systematic review using a prospectively registered protocol
98 (CRD42019156606) and reported the findings following standard guidelines (13).

99

100 Search strategy and study selection

101 We searched electronic databases (MEDLINE, EMBASE, and Cochrane CENTRAL) from
102 inception until June 2020 for all studies reporting on the development or evaluation of any
103 prediction model for the outcome of any ART treatments (in vitro fertilization (IVF) and/or
104 intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI)). We did not apply any search filters or language
105 restrictions. Articles in non-English were translated if deemed relevant. We conducted
106 supplementary searches in Google Scholar and Scopus for any additional articles of interest
107 in the grey literature. We also searched the bibliographies of relevant articles to identify any
108 missing citations.

109

110 We included longitudinal studies that reported on the development or evaluation of any
111 model for predicting clinical pregnancy (confirmed on ultrasound) or live birth following any
112 ART treatments. We excluded studies reporting on the crude association between a single
113 independent variable and the outcomes of interest, those reporting on non-predictive models,
114 and those not reporting on the model performance measures. Models predicting non-
115 reproductive outcomes or solely predicting biochemical pregnancy were also excluded.
116 Similarly, we excluded models that used solely embryological or seminal parameters to
117 predict the outcomes of interest. Finally, we also excluded case series, conference abstracts
118 and review articles.

119

120 Assessment of study quality

121 We assessed the risk of bias and applicability of the included studies in duplicate using the
122 PROBAST tool (14). Studies were assessed in four domains: population, predictors, outcome,
123 and analysis. Studies were deemed low risk of bias if they were cohort studies, defined and
124 measured predictors consistently and independently of the pre-specified outcome, included
125 sufficient events per variable with appropriate parameterisation of predictors, included all
126 participants in the analysis, treated missing data appropriately, did not include predictors
127 based on univariable analyses, assessed the model's discrimination and calibration
128 appropriately, and accounted for model overfitting and optimism based on the use of an
129 appropriate validation procedure and shrinkage of estimates in the presence of optimism
130 which were evaluated in the context of events per variable, appropriate parameterisation and
131 modelling strategy (14). We produced an overall assessment of both the risk of bias and
132 model applicability per study.

133

134 *Models performance, generalizability and applicability*

135 We evaluated models' performance by their reported discrimination (the model's ability to
136 separate those with and without the outcome of interest) and calibration (the concordance
137 between predicted and observed outcome frequency) measures (15). Discrimination is
138 commonly described using the rank order statistic 'area under the receiver operating
139 characteristic curve' (AUROC), which is equivalent to the concordance-statistic (c-statistic).
140 We considered a c-statistic value of 0.5 to represent no discriminative ability, a value of 1 to
141 represent perfect discriminative ability (15). Calibration is often assessed using the Hosmer-
142 Lemeshow statistic (16). A model is considered well-calibrated when the average predicted
143 probability per sub-group matches the observed proportion. Calibration is more informatively
144 assessed graphically by the calibration plot, where the predicted probability per ordered sub-
145 group is plotted against the observed proportion, demonstrating the nature and magnitude of

146 any miscalibration. An intercept of 0 and a slope of 1 therefore represents perfect calibration
147 (17).

148

149 To evaluate generalizability, we reported on the validation process for each model including
150 the validation type, procedures, and characteristics of the validation population. We divided
151 validation efforts into ‘internal’, ‘temporal’, or ‘external’ depending the type of validation
152 population.

153

154 To evaluate the models’ applicability and translation into clinical practice, we reported on
155 efforts to increase the model’s accessibility to both health professionals and lay consumers,
156 and the availability of any decision support tools including predicted probabilities based on
157 patient profile, score-based decision aids, score-based nomograms, to end-user web-based
158 predictive calculators.

159

160 *Data extraction*

161 Two independent reviewers (IH and MPR) extracted data onto a custom designed collection
162 database guided by the CHARMS checklist (18) to identify relevant data points for extraction
163 and reporting. We extracted data on the study design, outcome, sample size, population
164 characteristics, model development methods, performance and validation statistics, and
165 clinical application. We divided models into (pre-ART) where outcome prediction was
166 possible prior to commencing ovarian stimulation, and (intra-ART) where outcome
167 prediction was possible after commencing ovarian stimulation. We categorized the included
168 studies as per the TRIPOD guidelines into: type 1a studies developing a model and evaluating
169 its predictive performance using the same data (apparent performance), type 1b studies
170 developing a prediction model using the entire dataset with resampling (e.g. bootstrapping or

171 cross-validation) techniques to evaluate the performance and optimise the developed model,
172 type 2a studies with data randomly split to develop the model and then to evaluate its
173 predictive performance, type 2b studies with data non-randomly split (e.g. by location or
174 time) to develop the prediction model and then to evaluate its predictive performance, type 3
175 studies developing a prediction model using one dataset and an evaluation of its performance
176 on separate data (e.g. from a different population), and type 4 studies which are only
177 evaluating the predictive performance of an existing prediction model in a separate dataset
178 (19).

179

180 *Statistical analysis*

181 We summarised data using descriptive statistics and reported on continuous data using means
182 or medians with standard deviations where relevant. For dichotomous data we reported using
183 frequencies and natural percentages. All analyses and figures were produced using RStudio
184 version 1.2.1335 (RStudio, Boston, MA) (20).

185

186 **Results**

187 *Study characteristics*

188 Our search revealed 8052 potentially relevant unique citations; of these, we reviewed 483 in
189 full and included 69 studies in our review reporting on the development of 120 ART
190 prediction models (Figure 1). All included studies were cohort studies, 55 of which were
191 retrospective (55/69, 79.7%) and 14 prospective (14/69, 20.3%). As per TRIPOD
192 classification, 18 (18/69, 26.1%) of these studies were type 1a studies, 20 (20/69, 29.0%)
193 were type 1b, 6 (6/69, 8.7%) were type 2a, 10 (10/69, 14.5%) were type 2b, 5 (5/69, 7.2%)
194 were type 3, and 10 (10/69, 14.5%) type 4 (Figure 2). The majority were from Europe (49/69,

195 71.0%) with only eleven from Asia (11/69, 15.9%), and three from North America (3/69,
196 4.3%).

197

198 There were variations in the population characteristics across included studies. Nine studies
199 (13.4%) included unselected couples (for age, cycle cancellation, maternal comorbidity,
200 aetiology, and sperm source), seven included unselected couples but excluded women using
201 donor gametes (10.4%), and twelve studies (17.9%) included couples with selected baseline
202 characteristics (Supplementary Table 1). About half of the included studies explicitly
203 excluded donor oocyte cycles (29/69, 42.0%), and a third explicitly excluded cancelled cycles
204 (21/69, 30.4%), and a quarter explicitly excluded women outside a specific age range (18/69,
205 26.1%).

206

207 Most of the included studies reported on the development (with or without validation) of
208 novel models (62/69, 89.9%), with the remainder uniquely reporting on the validation of pre-
209 existing models (7/69, 10.1%). Half of these studies (30/62, 48.3%) reported on pre-ART
210 predictive models (21–47), and 56% (35/62, 56.5%) reported on intra-ART (48–78). Only
211 three studies (3/62, 4.8%) reported on both pre and intra-ART predictive models (79–81).
212 Three quarters of these developmental studies (47/62, 75.8%) involved IVF/ICSI treatments,
213 twelve IVF treatment only (12/62, 19.4%), and two ICSI treatment only (2/62, 3.2%), with 1
214 unspecified by the authors. Two-thirds included only cycles using a fresh embryo transfer
215 (41/62, 66.1%), while both fresh and frozen embryo cycles were included in 21 studies
216 (21/62, 33.9%).

217

218 *Predictors and outcomes*

219 For studies that developed pre-ART models, the commonest included predictor was maternal
220 age (27/30, 90.0%) followed by tubal factor subfertility (15/30, 50.0%), gravidity (13/30,
221 43.3%), and the duration of subfertility (12/30, 40.0%) (Figure 3a). A similar trend was seen
222 for intra-ART models as the commonest included predictor was also maternal age (33/35,
223 94.3%), followed by embryo quality (21/35, 60.0%), previous ART success (16/35, 45.7%),
224 duration of subfertility (12/35, 34.3%), and tubal factor subfertility (10/35, 28.6%) (Figure
225 3b).

226

227 Live birth was the outcome of interest across all studies, for those that developed both pre-
228 ART (20/30, 66.7%) and intra-ART (18/35, 51.4%) models. A quarter of studies that
229 developed intra-ART models focused on clinical pregnancy (10/35, 28.6%) and ongoing
230 pregnancy (8/35, 22.9%) which were less frequently reported in pre-ART models (clinical
231 pregnancy (5/30, 16.7%), ongoing pregnancy (5/30, 16.7%)).

232

233 *Sample size and modelling method*

234 The median sample size for developing pre-ART models was 757 for participants (range 85-
235 113,873) and 1,061 for ART cycles (range 113-443,202). For intra-ART models, the median
236 participant sample size was 1,419 (range 90-113,873) and median ART cycles was 1,676
237 (range 110-184,269). Most studies (48/69, 69.6%) had ≥ 10 events per candidate variable
238 (degrees of freedom). The majority of studies developed models using logistic regression
239 (pre-ART (24/30, 80.0%), intra-ART (30/35, 85.7%)). Only a minority used other methods,
240 including generalized estimating equations, Bayesian networks, Cox regression, machine
241 learning techniques and deep learning techniques (Supplementary Table 2).

242

243 *Performance, generalizability and applicability*

244 Discrimination was reported for most of the included studies (109/120, 90.8%) while
245 calibration was reported for over half (72/120, 60.0%). Both discrimination and calibration
246 were reported in only 61 studies (61/120, 50.8%). The commonest methods to assess
247 calibration were the Hosmer-Lemeshow statistic (27/72, 37.5%), calibration plot (24/72,
248 33.3%), slope test (14/72, 19.4%), and calibration-in-the-large (11/72, 15.3%).

249

250 We captured 31 unvalidated models from type 1a studies without subsequent validation
251 (31/120, 25.8%), as well as six models that were locally refit from validation studies (6/120,
252 5.0%). Fifty-five models were internally-validated from 1b/2a studies without subsequent
253 validation (55/120, 45.8%), 15 were temporally-validated models from 2b studies without
254 subsequent validation (15/120, 12.5%). There were seven external validation studies (7/120,
255 5.8%). Four were type 4 studies by a team that overlapped with the model development team
256 (4/120, 3.3%)(35,80,82),(22,23,79), and three studies were performed by independent
257 validation teams (30,37,57)

258 We captured eight externally validated pre-ART models: the Templeton model (n=6
259 validations), Nelson model (n=3), LaMarca model (n=1), McLernon pre-treatment model
260 (n=1), Arvis model (n=1), and The Stolwijk models A/I, C, and II (n=7). All models showed
261 similar performance with c-statistics ranging from 0.53 to 0.78. The Stolwijk models A/I and
262 II were declared invalid (Table 1).

263

264 Among the intra-ART models, only five were externally validated: the Cai model (n=1),
265 Hunault model (n=1), van Loendersloot model (n=1), Meijerink model (n=1), and the
266 McLernon post-treatment model (n=1). All models showed similar performance with c-
267 statistics ranging from 0.63 to 0.78. However, only the McLernon model was validated in a

268 good quality external validation study with low risk of bias showing a c-statistic of 0.71
269 (95%CI 0.69-0.74) and reportedly good calibration (Table 1).
270
271 Only a quarter of all published models (33/120, 25.4%) were presented in full either offering
272 the regression formula, coefficients with intercept, or baseline hazard. Seven models
273 presented nomograms or score charts (7/120, 5.8%), and seven were adapted into online risk
274 prediction calculators (7/120, 5.8%). Of these, only three calculators were functional at the
275 time of writing this review(83–85). Overall, half of the included studies (35/62, 56.5%),
276 reporting on 47 models (47/120, 39.2%), enabled the reader to generate a personalised
277 prediction in a useful format. All the externally validated models offered an implementation
278 tool except the Cai model and the invalid Stolwijk models. But only two presented an online
279 calculator for use by health professionals and patients (the Nelson and the McLernon
280 calculators) (Table 1).

281

282 *Quality and risk of bias*

283 Overall, a majority of the included studies were at high risk of bias (56/69, 81.2%) and only
284 ten studies at low risk (10/69, 14.5%) (Figure 4, Supplementary Table 3). Within the
285 ‘participant’ domain, three-quarters of the included studies were at low risk (50/69, 72.5%)
286 and nine at high risk (9/69, 13.0%). Similarly, within the ‘outcome’ domain, the majority
287 were at low risk (66/69, 95.7%). In contrast, within the ‘predictor’ domain only half were at
288 low risk (32/69, 46.4%), with 36 studies of unclear risk due to providing inadequate
289 definitions, namely for candidate predictors (36/69, 52.2%). For the ‘analysis’ domain, less
290 than a fifth were of low risk of bias (12/69, 17.4%). Half (35/69, 50.7%) assessed model
291 performance appropriately, by discrimination and an informative measure of calibration.
292 Only a quarter reported and handled missing data appropriately (16/69, 23.2%); only 19

293 studies (19/69, 27.5%) addressed overfitting and optimism; only 48 had sufficient events per
294 candidate predictor (≥ 20 events (14)) (48/69, 69.6%), and only 38 parameterized predictors
295 appropriately (38/69, 55.1%).

296

297 **Discussion**

298 *Summary of main findings*

299 Our findings depict an overall high investment in producing working prediction models and
300 decision aids for clinicians and patients undergoing ART treatments with 120 models
301 produced over the last 24 years, an average of 5 models produced per year. However, while
302 huge resources and patient data were committed to producing these models, only a minority
303 of these studies offered externally validated models that could be used in everyday practice.

304

305 The majority of the included studies had a high risk of bias, largely driven by poor model
306 development methodology specifically in data sampling and analysis (Figure 4). Only a
307 minority of models were developed within large sizes cohorts (only 9 studies included
308 $>10,000$ women/cycles) and most were selected ART populations, thus reducing model's
309 applicability in practice. In contrast, with much prediction data available several clinical and
310 biochemical markers are now well established as reliable predictors of reproductive outcomes
311 (Figure 3a, 3b). Leveraging this large body of evidence could facilitate the process of
312 developing and validating future models to minimize duplication of efforts. Logistic
313 regression modelling remains the commonest method for model development, though
314 alternative methodology is becoming popular such as artificial intelligence aided techniques
315 (29,34,38,46,48,49,54,65,69,75,86).

316

317 *Strengths and limitations*

318 The strengths of our review are several. In contrast to previously published reviews (7,8,11),
319 we used a prospectively registered protocol, applied a comprehensive search strategy,
320 extracted data in duplicate, assessed quality according to PROBAST criteria, and included all
321 types of studies as per TRIPOD (both model development and validation studies) to evaluate
322 models' applicability into clinical practice. Consequently, our findings offer a robust
323 assessment of the current state-of-the-art in ART prediction modelling and the remaining
324 knowledge gap. To aid their adoption in practice, we identified top performing models
325 referencing their quantitative assessment markers, relevant population of interest and how
326 they can be accessed online (Table 1).

327

328 Our research was inclusive with almost double the number of studies included in the most
329 recent review (11) offering a more comprehensive and systematic assessment of the
330 literature. A previous review by Ratna et al adopted an arbitrary quality threshold of 80%
331 adherence to TRIPOD (19) in their inclusion criteria which could have limited the
332 generalizability of their findings. We refrained from imposing any reporting thresholds and
333 assessed the methodological quality of all published models to offer a comprehensive and
334 objective assessment of the literature.

335

336 Our findings still have some limitations. Several of the studies reported vaguely on the
337 measures of calibration using terms like "good calibration" which limited our ability to
338 provide an objective assessment of these models. Furthermore, given the lack of a universally
339 adopted definition of what constitutes good calibration for ART models, it is difficult to
340 preferentially select top performing models. Clearly, most subfertile couples have some
341 probability of conceiving independent of any treatment, similarly the chance of conception in
342 healthy couples is never 100% in every cycle. As the methodological standards for model

343 development improved over time, our contemporary PROBAST assessment of risk of bias
344 might differ from older reviews and the findings are therefore not completely reproducible.

345

346 *Implications for clinical practice*

347 Introducing prediction modelling into clinical practice was aimed to tailor treatments to each
348 patient's individual needs, thus maximising effectiveness and reducing personal harm (9).

349 Models can aid decision making on starting treatment (87) or to adjust a treatment to the
350 patient characteristics (88). Whilst most treatments are static (e.g., medication or surgery), the
351 process of undergoing IVF or ICSI treatments is heterogeneous and dynamic, continuously
352 changing through a series of interconnected complex decisions made to optimise successful
353 conception. Coupled with the rapid progress in ART, it is likely that most models will be
354 over-simplistic and become outdated. This applies especially to pre-ART models which are
355 dependent on a limited range of predictors that cannot adjust for initial treatment response
356 (e.g., ovulation stimulation and embryo fertilisation). Consequently, the clinical value of
357 available models is currently limited to counselling patients on the value of starting ART
358 treatment rather than tailoring those treatments to maximize chances of conception. A
359 solution could lie in the development, validation and continuous update of dynamic models
360 that could adjust for the within-treatment changes and offer a refined estimate of successful
361 conception throughout the ART treatment process (89).

362

363 The process of IVF/ICSI is emotionally and psychologically demanding with patients often
364 having to make difficult decisions such as the use of frozen embryos or consider add-on
365 therapies (90). Predicting the chances of conception in itself can be stressful (91) which could
366 limit the adoption of these models in practice. As such, developing any prediction models
367 should be guided by expressed patients' needs (92), a practice we did not observe in the

368 models included in this review. Future model development should take into account the
369 various decision-making processes involved in the ART treatment process and the associated
370 predictors that could add cumulative information to aid patients and their caring clinicians in
371 the decision-making process. Lastly, successful model implementation into clinical practice
372 could be facilitated by improved interpretability (93) and user-friendly interfaces that enable
373 end users to input and access data effortlessly in jargon-free outputs such as online risk
374 calculators or decision aid tools hosted on mobile apps (83–85).

375

376 *Future research need*

377 Our findings illustrate an abundance of data dedicated to predict ART outcomes, yet
378 translation into practice remains limited. As our ability to collect and analysis large datasets
379 improves over time, perhaps future steps should focus more on harmonizing data collection
380 across institutions, regulators and countries to facilitate streamlined model development,
381 validation, and update while reducing associated costs. Crucially, there is a need to focus
382 available resources on combining data from published models (e.g., using individual patient
383 data meta-analysis methodology) and externally validating ensuing ones rather than on
384 developing newer models.

385

386 We captured a recent trend towards using artificial intelligence (AI) technology in model
387 development (29,34,38,46,48,49,54,65,69,75,86). While promising, most of these models did
388 not achieve improved prediction performance nor followed sound methodology compared to
389 older ones (94). Specifically, the work on many of these models seem to be driven by an
390 experimental approach evaluating the different AI technologies rather than a multi-
391 disciplinary approach aiming to address real patients' needs. Still, leveraging the power of AI
392 technology and big data research methods to simulate the complex decision making process

393 involved in ART treatments could be a game changer to provide accurate individualized
394 fertility assessment to couples in need (95). Large multi-national multi-disciplinary teams are
395 best equipped to address this complex and important health problem.

396

397 **Conclusions**

398 We identified externally validated prediction models that could be used to advise couples
399 undergoing ART treatments on their reproductive outcomes. The quality of available models
400 remains limited and more research is needed to improve their generalisability and
401 applicability in clinical practice.

402

403

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412

413 **Contribution to Authorship:** BHA conceived the idea. BHA and IH wrote the final protocol
414 and manuscript. IH conducted the search. IH and MR conducted the data extraction and 1st
415 draft of the manuscript. BHA and IH conducted the statistical analysis and data interpretation.
416 SK and KSK contributed to data interpretation and final editing of the manuscript.

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699 **Figure legends:**

700

701 **Figure (1):** Study selection and inclusion process on prediction models for reproductive

702 outcomes following assisted reproductive technology treatments.

703

704 **Figure (2):** TRIPOD classification of included studies reporting on prediction models for

705 reproductive outcomes following assisted reproductive technology treatments

706

707 **Figure (3):** Predictors used in the development of prediction models for reproductive

708 outcomes following assisted reproductive technology treatments.

709 3a: predictors in pre-ART treatment models

710 3b: predictors for intra-ART treatment models

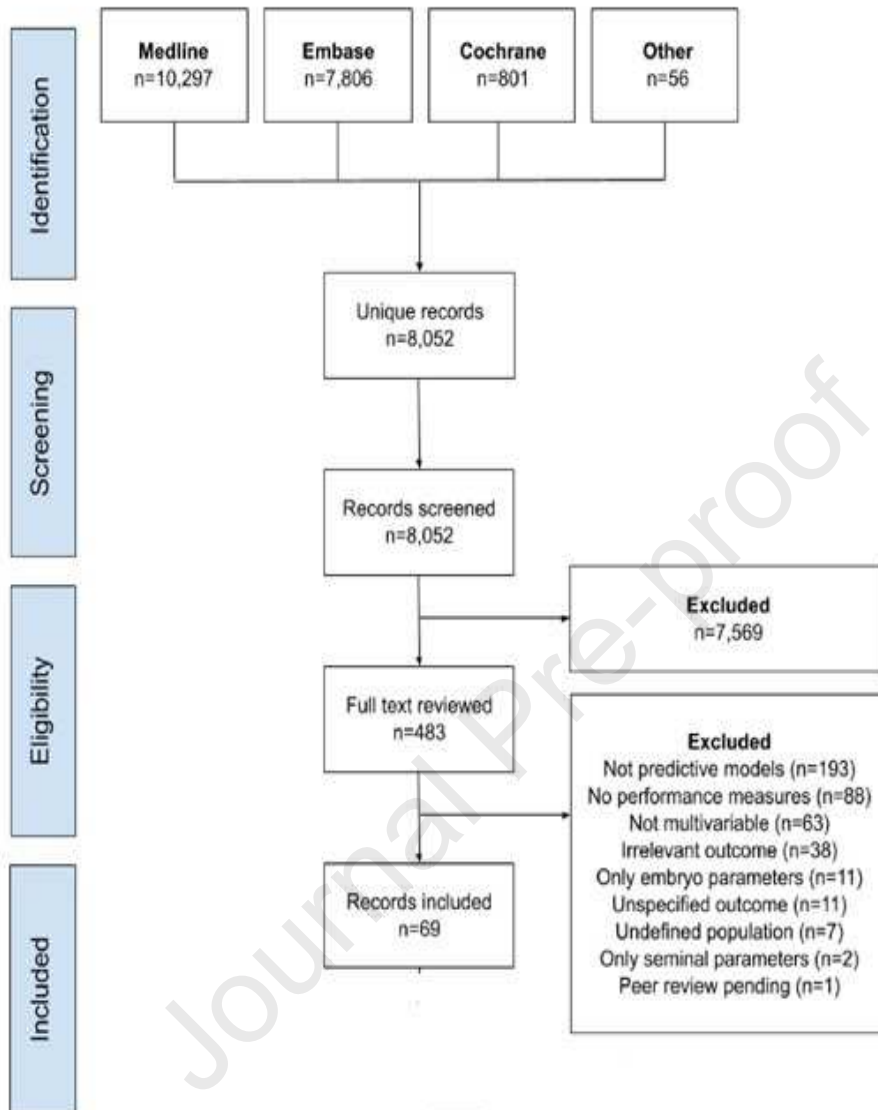
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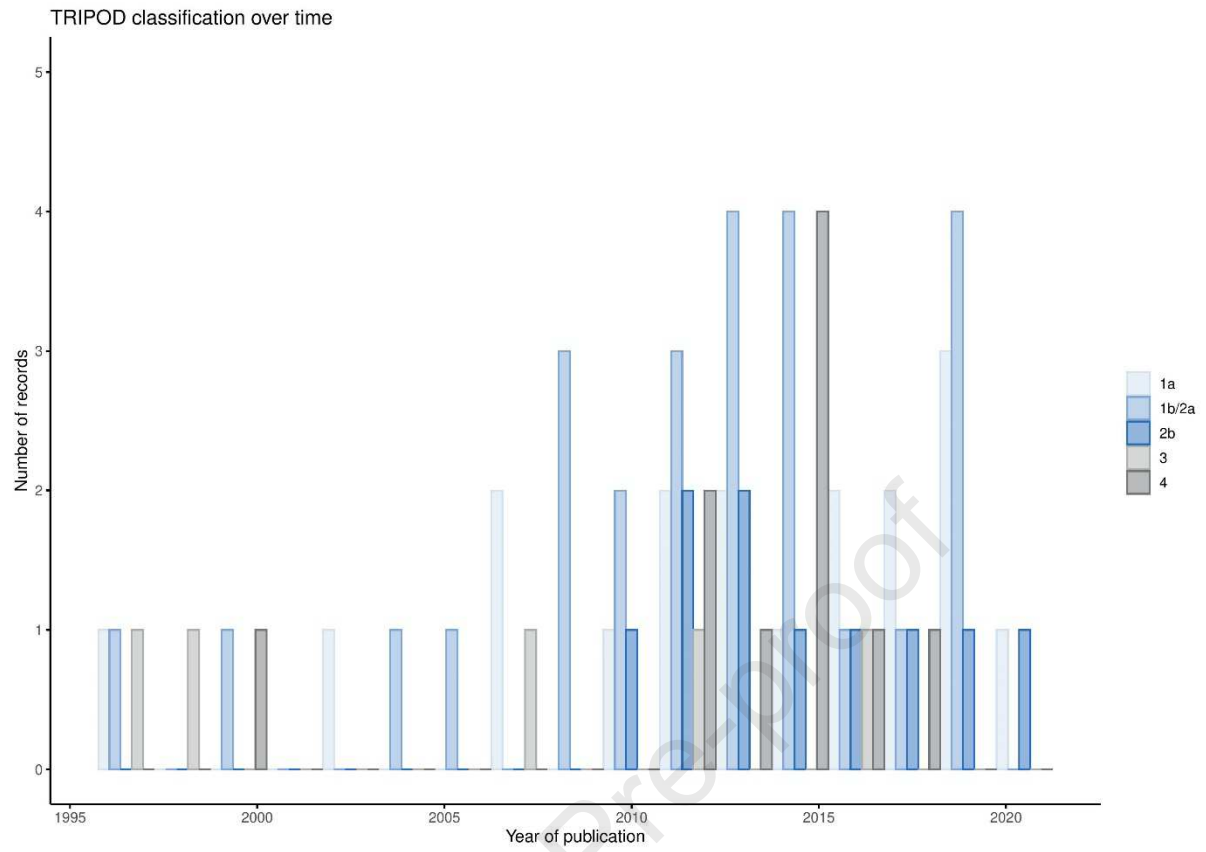
712 **Figure (4):** Risk of bias assessment in included studies reporting on prediction models for

713 reproductive outcomes following assisted reproductive technology treatments

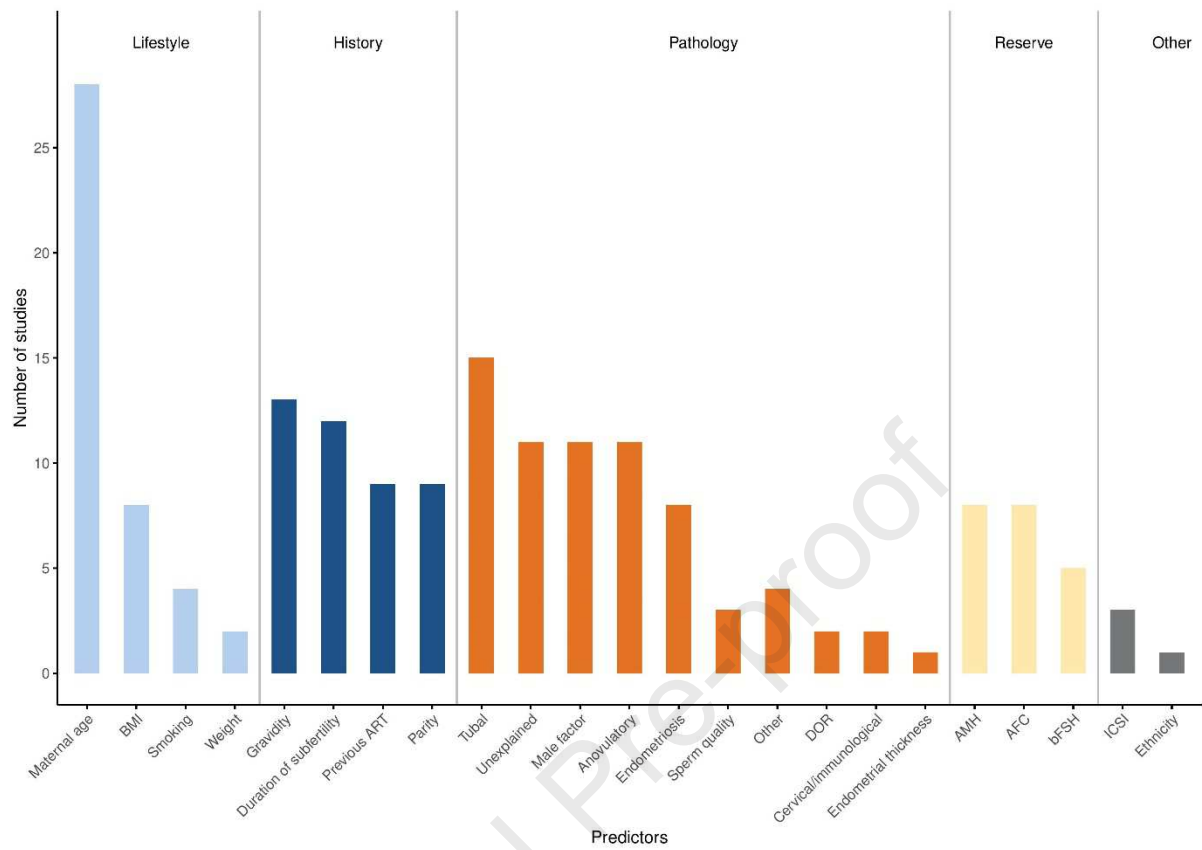
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3a



3b

