# Luteal Phase Versus Follicular Phase Administration of Clomiphene Citrate in Polycystic Ovary Syndrome. A Randomized Controlled Trial

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Submitted for the Partial Fulfillment of Master Degree In Obstetrics and Gynaecology

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To the soul of my father, Allah forgive him and grant him his highest paradise.

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#### List of Abbreviations

**AGA** Androgenic alopecia

**AGEs** Advanced glycation end products

**ASRM** American Society for Reproductive Medicine

**BBT** Basal body temperature

**BMI** Body mass index

**CAH** Congenital adrenal hyperplasia

**CC** Clomiphene citrate

**CPA** Cyproterone acetate

**DHEAS** Dehydroepiandrosterone sulfate

**E** Estrogen

**ER** Estrogen receptors

**ESHRE** Eropean Society for Human Reproduction and

Embryology

**FDA** Food and drug administration

**FSH** Follicle stimulating hormone

**GNRH** Gonadotropin releasing hormone

*HAIRAN* Hyper-androgenic insulin-resistant acanthosis

nigricans

*HCG* Human chorionic gonadotrophin

*HMG* Human menopausal gonadotrophin

#### List of Abbreviations

*HSG* Hysterosalpingography

**IU** International unit

*IUI* Intrauterine insemination

**LH** Luteinizing hormone

**LOD** Laparoscopic ovarian drilling

*LOS* Laparoscopic ovarian surgery

**LPD** Luteal phase deficiency

**NCAH** Non classic congenital adrenal hyperplasia

**NIDDM** Noninsulin-dependent diabetes mellitus

**NIH** National Institutes of Health

*OCP* Oral contraceptive pill

**OHSS** Ovarian hyper stimulation syndrom

**P** Progesterone

**PCOS** Polycystic ovary syndrome

**PR** Pregnancy rate

**RCOG** Royal College of Obstetrician and Gynaecologist

**SERM** Selective estrogen receptor modulator

**SHBG** Sexual hormone binding globulin

**TRH** Thyrotropin-releasing hormone

**TSH** Thyroid stimulating hormone

**USA** United States of America

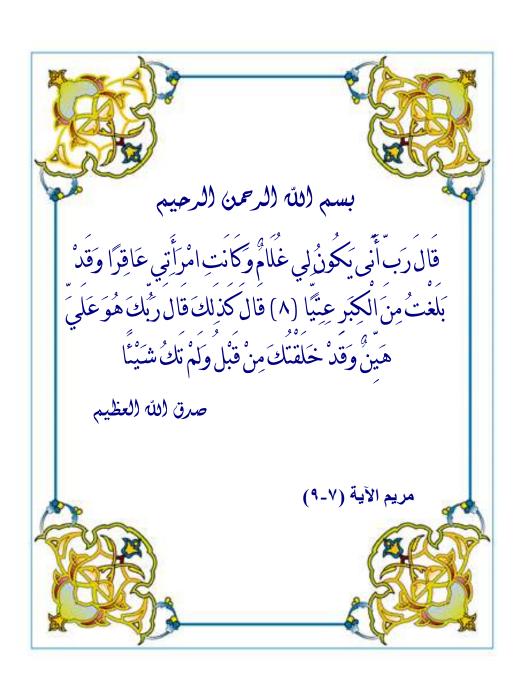
**WHO** World Health Organization

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#### Introduction

Polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS) is one of the most common female endocrine disorders (*Fauser et al.*, 2011). It is a complex, heterogeneous disorder of uncertain aetiology, but there is strong evidence that it can, to a large degree, be classified as a genetic disease (*Fauser et al.*, 2011). Genetic and environmental contributors to hormonal disturbances combine with other factors, including obesity (*Diamanti et al.*, 2006). Ovarian dysfunction and hypothalamic pituitary abnormalities contribute to the etiology of PCOS (*Doi et al.*, 2005).

It produces symptoms in approximately 5% to 10% of women of reproductive age 12-45 years old (*March et al.*, 2010). It is thought to be one of the leading causes of female subfertility (*Goldenberg and Glueck*, 2008).

Clomiphene citrate is a first line pharmacological treatment of ovulatory dysfunction associated with PCOS, because it is easily administered, relatively safe, and inexpensive (*Norman et al., 2004*). It is a selective estrogen receptor modulator (SERM) that increases production of gonadotropins by inhibiting negative feedback on the hypothalamus. It is used in the form of its citrate to induce ovulation (*Homburg, 2005*) (*Shelly et al., 2008*).

It is known to be both an estrogen agonist and antagonist; however, its agonist properties manifest only when endogenous estrogen levels are extremely low (*Schorge et al.*, 2008).

Its administration leads to depletion of estrogen receptors at the level of the pituitary and hypothalamus, interrupting the negative feedback that estrogen normally produces. As a result, GnRH secretion is improved and stimulates pituitary production of follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), which in turn drives follicular growth and maturation with emergence of 1 or more dominant follicles (*Schorge et al.*, 2008).

Clomiphene was effective in increasing pregnancy rate compared to placebo (Odd's ratio, OR 5.8, 95%confidence interval, CI 1.6 to 21.5) (*Brown et al., 2009*). The standard effective dose of CC ranges from 50 mg/d to 250 mg/d, although doses in excess of 100 mg/d are not approved by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and add little to clinical pregnancy rates (*Dodge et al., 2012*).

Most women (52%) ovulate in response to treatment with 50 mg. Those who do not ovulate with 50 mg CC may ovulate at higher doses using a step-up regimen with doses escalating 50 mg with each anovulatory cycle (22% with 100mg, 12% with 150mg, 7% with 200mg, and 5% with 250mg) (*Gysler et al.*, 2011).

Badawy at al. (2009) tested a novel protocol of luteal phase administration of CC for ovulation induction in women with polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS), and concluded that early administration of CC in patients with PCOS will lead to more follicular growth and endometrial thickness, which might result in higher pregnancy rates.

#### **Aim of the Work**

To compare the luteal phase (early) administration of clomiphene citrate to the conventional (late) administration of the same drug in the follicular phase as regards ovarian response in PCOS.

#### **Research Question:**

**Patients**: Women with diagnosis of PCOS based on the 2003 ESHRE/ASRM (Rotterdam) criteria with standardized conditions.

**Intervention**: Early Clomiphene Citrate administration (Late luteal phase) before withdrawal endometrial shedding.

**Comparison:** Late Clomiphene Citrate Group (Early follicular phase) after withdrawal endometrial shedding.

**Outcome**: The primary outcome measures are the total number of follicles, number of follicles  $\geq 14$  mm in diameter, number of follicles  $\geq 18$  mm in diameter and endometrial thickness. 2ry outcome measure is the number of ovulating patients.

#### **Research Hypothesis:**

**Null Hypothesis**: Luteal phase administration of clomiphene citrate protocol gives same results of conventional administration of clomiphene citrate in the follicular phase as regards ovarian response in PCOS.

**Alternative Hypothesis:** Luteal phase administration of clomiphene citrate protocol gives better results than conventional administration of clomiphene citrate in the follicular phase as regards ovarian response in PCOS.

### Chapter (I)

# **Polycystic Ovary Syndrome**

## **History and Epidemiology**

The condition was first described in 1935 by American gynecologists Irving F. Stein, Sr. and Michael L. Leventhal, from whom its original name of *Stein-Leventhal syndrome* is taken (*Marrinan and Greg*, 2011). The earliest published description of a person with what is now recognized as PCOS was in 1721 in Italy. Cyst-related changes to the ovaries were described in 1844 (*Kovacs et al.*, 2013).

PCOS is the most common female endocrinopathy, affecting 6–7% of women in their reproductive years (*Franks et al.*, 2008). Although polycystic ovaries can be found in approximately 20% of the female population, they are not necessarily associated with the typical symptoms, which may be expressed at some time during the fertile life span when provoked by, for example, weight gain or insulin resistance (*Fauser et al.*, 2011). It is associated with 75% of all an ovulatory disorders causing infertility, with 90% of women with oligomenorrhoea, more than 90% with hirsutism and more than 80% with persistent acne (*Homburg*, 2008). It becomes symptomatic in adolescence (*Buggs and Rosenfield*, 2005).

# **Pathophysiology**

A complete understanding of the pathophysiology of PCOS is still lacking. Because of the heterogeneity of this disorder, there are most likely multiple underlying pathophysiologic mechanisms. Several theories have been proposed to explain the pathogenesis of PCOS (Wilson et al., 2011). Current evidence suggests that PCOS arises as a complex trait with contributions from both heritable and uninheritable factors (Goodarzi and Azziz, 2009). Polygenic influences appear to account for about 70% of the variance in pathogenesis (Rosenfield, 2008). Insulin resistance, obesity, genetics... basically anything that disrupts hormone disruption can influence the onset of PCOS; and so does iodine deficiency (Li et al., 2013).

It is a common, complex genetic disorder (*Fauser et al.*, 2011). Common diseases such as schizophrenia, asthma, and type 2 diabetes, as well as PCOS, have a complex, multifactorial etiology, in which a variety of predisposing genes, not just one gene, interact with environmental factors to produce disease (*Goodarzi and azziz*, 2009; *Insenser et al.*, 2013).

#### I. Predisposing factors

#### **A- Hereditary factors**

The syndrome clusters in families, and prevalence rates in first-degree relatives are five to six times higher than in the general population (*Amato and Simpson*, 2004). Among first-degree female relatives (on no hormonal therapy) of 93 patients with PCOS, 35% of premenopausal mothers and 40% of sisters were also affected with the disorder (*Goodarzi and azziz*, 2009). Studies of human ovarian theca cells have suggested dysregulation of the CYP11a gene inpatients with PCOS. This gene encodes the cholesterol side-chain cleavage enzyme, the enzyme that performs the rate-limiting step in steroid biosynthesis (*Unsal et al.*, 2014). Evidence also suggests up regulation of other enzymes in the androgen biosynthetic pathway (*Franks*, 2006). In addition, the insulin receptor gene on chromosome 19p13.2 may be involved (*Urbanek*, 2005).

#### **B-** Environmental factors

The environmental component in the pathogenesis of PCOS includes dietary factors and other exogenously derived substances. Over nutrition with consumption of calorie-rich diets leads to obesity which may accelerate the development or aggravate the clinical course of PCOS (*Pasquali et al.*, 2010). The high intake of dietary advanced glycation end products (AGEs) may also contribute to the pathogenesis and perpetuation of PCOS (*Diamanti-Kandarakis at al.*, 2008).

In particular, increased AGEs levels were reported in lean, normoglycemic and non-insulin resistant women with PCOS (*Diamanti-Kandarakis at al., 2008*), and AGEs were found to psychological stress and neurotransmitter levels may