



Connecting links between genetic factors defining ovarian reserve and recurrent miscarriages

Deepika Delsa Dean¹ · Sarita Agarwal¹ · Poonam Tripathi¹

Received: 27 August 2018 / Accepted: 30 August 2018 / Published online: 15 September 2018
© Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2018

Abstract

Purpose Approximately 1–2% of the women faces three or more successive spontaneous miscarriages termed as recurrent miscarriage (RM). Many clinical factors have been attributed so far to be the potential risk factors in RM, including uterine anomalies, antiphospholipid syndrome, endocrinological abnormalities, chromosomal abnormalities, and infections. However, in spite of extensive studies, reviews, and array of causes known to be associated with RM, about 50% cases encountered by treating physicians remains unknown. The aims of this study were to evaluate recent publications and to explore oocyte-specific genetic factors that may have role in incidence of recurrent miscarriages.

Method Recent studies have identified common molecular factors contributing both in establishment of ovarian reserve and in early embryonic development. Also, studies have pointed out the relationship between the age-associated depletion of OR and increase in the risk of miscarriages, thus suggestive of an interacting biology. Here, we have gathered literature evidences in establishing connecting links between genetic factors associated with age induced or pathological OR depletion and idiopathic RM, which are the two extreme ends of female reproductive pathology.

Conclusion In light of connecting etiological link between infertility and RM as reviewed in this study, interrogating the oocyte-specific genes with suspected roles in reproductive biology, in cases of unexplained RM, may open new possibilities in widening our understanding of RM pathophysiology.

Keywords Recurrent miscarriages · Ovarian reserve · Premature ovarian insufficiency · Genetic · Factors

Introduction

Miscarriage, which is widely defined as a spontaneous loss of pregnancy before 20 weeks of gestation [1, 2], is recognized as the most common complication of pregnancy affecting 2–5% of couples [3]. About 15% of all clinically recognizable pregnancies terminates in a miscarriage [4] while preclinical miscarriages take place in approximately 60% of human conceptions and are lost very early, i.e., near or following

implantation [4]. Approximately 1–2% of the women faces three or more successive spontaneous miscarriages termed as recurrent miscarriage (RM) [5–7] leaving them in a devastating and emotionally taxing situation [8, 9]. The possibility of having another miscarriage tends to increase with history of previous miscarriages [10]. Such incidence of repeated miscarriages in a women seems not to be a result of chance but is suggestive of some underlying abnormality.

The known causes of RM

Many clinical factors have been attributed so far to be potential risk factors in RM. In 15% of the women facing RM, an anatomical abnormality could be involved, with septate uterus being most common [11]. Immunological blood clotting disorder like antiphospholipid syndrome (APS) is found associated with another 15% of RM cases causing 1st and 2nd trimester miscarriages [1, 3]. Several endocrinological abnormalities have also been implicated as etiologic factors for about 8 to 12% of RM [12]. This is due to poorly controlled

✉ Sarita Agarwal
saritasgpgi@gmail.com

Deepika Delsa Dean
deepikadean.ddd@gmail.com

Poonam Tripathi
poonamtripathi90@gmail.com

¹ Department of Medical Genetics, Sanjay Gandhi Post Graduate Institute of Medical Sciences (SGPGIMS), Lucknow, U.P. 226014, India

and untreatable hormonal imbalances, as in disorders like diabetes mellitus [13, 14], hypothyroidism [15, 16], and luteal phase deficiency [17] which may have deleterious effects in implantation of growing embryo. In 2–4% of RM cases, balanced chromosomal translocations in asymptomatic parents may result in generation of unbalanced translocation in conceptuses [18]. These are often negatively selected by nature and mostly end up in a miscarriage [19, 20]. Several infections have been also identified as potential cause of early miscarriage [21] with specifically, 15% of early miscarriages and 66% of late miscarriages been associated with infections [22].

The unknown cause of RM

In spite of extensive studies, reviews, and array of causes known to be associated with RM, about 50% cases encountered by treating physicians remains unexplained, idiopathic, or unknown. The challenge of identifying underlying cause in these perplexing cases is huge and urges researchers to put in efforts to know more, explore more, and relate more. There might be some related pathways that remained either unquarried or underexplored in defining their potential role in RM till date. One such entity that might affect the embryo development is the molecular factors associated with the establishment of the ovarian reserve (OR). OR is the quantity and quality of the ovarian primordial follicular pool remaining in a women's ovaries. The relationship of age-associated depletion of OR and increase in the risk of miscarriage and also role of various oocyte-specific genes in early embryonic development and in embryo implantation is suggestive of interacting biology [23, 24]. This review aims to gather evidences in establishing connecting links between genetic factors associated with age induced or pathological OR depletion and idiopathic RM, which are the two extreme ends of female reproductive pathology. This will facilitate in identifying possible candidates in the RM pathophysiology and may lead to provide possible explanation for many of the unclassified RM cases.

Biological ovarian age and risk of miscarriages

Recent decades have witnessed an increase in the mean maternal age at the time of childbirth in developed countries [25]. Advanced maternal age has long been linked with increasing incidence of RM. For example, miscarriage risk of 9 to 12% is found in a women ≤ 35 years, but this risk upsurges to 75% in women with age > 40 [26]. The ovaries of a women exhibit accelerated aging in comparison to other biological system and therefore result in deterioration of OR both in number and quality of the oocytes. In fact, an exponential relationship has been observed between maternal age and presence of chromosomal abnormality in oocytes, with about 40–60% of oocytes from women of 40 years being aneuploids [27, 28].

Subsequently, such oocytes after fertilization translate into compromised quality embryos. Recently, Quenby et al. suggested that RM is a failure of nature's quality control that allows poor quality embryos to implant inappropriately, present as clinical pregnancy, and then undergo miscarriages [29]. This is evident from the fact that about 40–50% of miscarriages in the first trimester are result of chromosomal abnormalities in the conceptuses [30, 31].

Also, it was observed that assisted reproductive technology (ART) methods often fail for older women using their own oocytes, while donor oocytes from younger women can be successfully used in these women [32]. Reports depicting the potential of postmenopausal women to act as a successful surrogate have also been identified previously [33–36]. Similarly, with the help of ART, cases where postmenopausal women have given birth to healthy offspring have become quite common. These findings establish that parameters associated with decreased fertility appear to be present majorly within oocyte itself rather than the uterine environment. Therefore, understanding the genetic factors affecting the oocyte quality and quantity and further in embryo development is important to define its role in compromised fertility.

Apart from age-related physiologic depletion of OR in women of more than 40 years of age, a premature reduction of OR (pathological OR depletion) has also been identified in a subset of women suffering with diminished ovarian reserve (DOR). DOR is defined as reduced capacity of the ovaries to produce oocytes and is characterized by an abnormal OR testing with decreased antral follicle count (AFC < 5) on ultrasound, reduced anti-müllerian hormone (AMH < 0.5 – 1 ng/mL), or higher levels of follicle stimulating hormone (FSH > 10 IU/L on cycle days 2 to 4) [37, 38]. Toukhy et al. in 2002 enrolled 762 women with DOR and classified them in three different age groups of young, intermediate, and old. The miscarriage rate was found to be similarly high in all these three groups. The results of this study depicted that it is not the chronological age which is important; instead, it is the biological age of the ovary that dictates the pregnancy outcome and also, that the young age of a women does not protect her against the adverse effect of reduced OR [39]. In some women, a severe form of DOR can be present called as premature ovarian insufficiency (POI), characterized by 4 months of amenorrhea and day 3 FSH to be > 40 IU/L. Once the diagnosis of POI is reached, the women's reproductive potential is completely exhausted and women enter an early age menopause before 40 years. As quantity and quality of the oocytes and thereby the reproductive potential of a women go on depleting [40] and ultimately come to an end at natural menopause, thus it is likely that a diagnosis of POI (complete cessation of fertility) may be preceded by RM due to compromised oocyte quality with an augmented meiotic non-disjunction and subsequent generation of aneuploidy of embryos, which is one of the main causes of spontaneous

miscarriages [41–44]. In fact, a study by Santos et al., in 2015, observed that the oocyte in women with elevated FSH (prone to POI) is of worst quality in comparison to age-matched control women. Here, the author concluded that these oocytes of compromised quality are indicative of ovarian aging and may negatively affect the oocyte development into viable embryos leading to frequent miscarriages. Another recent study reported that percentage of women with elevated FSH was higher in the women undergoing RM, as compared to age-matched control women, and thereby recommended the association of DOR and RM [45]. The association of oocyte quality and RM in both physiological (normal aging) and pathological depletion of OR (DOR or POI) cases suggest that they may share common etiological pathways. Exploring the molecular pathways related to physiological aging and the pathologic disorders of oocyte quality would give researchers and clinicians the ability to improve fertility and pregnancy outcomes for many women.

Genetic factors involved in launch of OR and their putative role in RM

The OR decreases constantly, from fetal life, when it is established, until the menopause. The fetal number of oocytes is approximately 7 million during mid-gestation, 1 to 2 million at birth which further drops down to only 0.3–0.5 million at puberty [46–48]. A woman can ovulate about 500 times in her lifetime, and a majority of oocytes undergo atresia; thus, perimenopausal women's ovaries are left with only approximately 1000 oocytes of compromised quality [49, 50]. The overall process of OR establishment, pubertal OR activation, and age-dependent or pathological depletion of OR is largely influenced by genetic parameters. An alteration in the genes underlying these processes may lead to a spectrum of impaired ovarian function including POI. Till date, several causative mutations in various oocyte-specific genes have been implicated in POI rendering women infertile [51, 52].

Researchers have noted that there is an elevated risk of miscarriages in infertile women and vice versa [53–55]. Also, following infertility treatment, a high frequency of miscarriages has been reported [56]. These findings point out that both infertility and miscarriages lie within the spectrum of human reproductive failure that is inclusive of inability to conceive, inability to maintain pregnancy, or post-conception pregnancy loss. Some of the earlier studies have also shown common etiopathogenic pathways underlying these two extreme ends of reproductive failure spectrum [57, 58]. As POI is associated with infertility [59–61], thus factors contributing to development of POI may have implication in RM owing to proven links between infertility and the later.

Mutation in several genes has been validated by functional studies to be implicated in POI (for example *BMP15*, *GDF9*, *FSHR*, *LHCGR*, *FOXL2*, *FIGLA*, *NR5A1*, *NOBOX*, *NANOS3*,

and *STAG3*) [51, 62–72]. Several mutations in folliculogenesis growth factors like *BMP15* and *GDF9* gene have been reported in POI women with either primary or secondary amenorrhea [65, 66, 73–84]. The influence of level of these factors (*GDF9* and *BMP15*) in the follicular fluid, on the quality of the embryo, has been studied formerly. It was observed that a high mature *GDF9* level in follicular fluid was positively correlated with embryo quality [85]. Similarly, role of *BMP15* in determining oocyte quality and developmental potential has also been previously recognized with a finding that a high *BMP15* level in follicular fluid is associated with best grade embryo morphology [85, 86]. Also, augmented levels of *GDF9* and *BMP15* mRNA in cumulus granulosa cells are found to correlate with oocyte maturation, fertilization, embryo quality, and pregnancy outcome in humans [87]. All these findings suggest that the intra-ovarian *BMP/GDF* system is of great importance in regulating a spectrum of ovarian functions from establishment of OR to generation of a competent oocyte for embryo development and thus may have roles in problems of infertility/subfertility and miscarriages both.

Once a high-quality oocyte is generated, the next important primary process required for successful reproduction is the transformation of this terminally differentiated oocyte to a pluripotent embryo after fertilization. Before the massive activation of zygotic genes, the early embryo development solely relies on the maternal transcripts and proteins that have accumulated during the course of folliculogenesis and oogenesis [88–91]. The genes encoding these transcripts and proteins are called as maternal effect genes (MEG) and are fundamental for early cleavage events post-fertilization [92, 93]. The maternal effect proteins can interact together to form a large multiprotein complex known as sub-cortical maternal complex (SCMC), which are uniquely expressed in oocytes and in early embryos. Studies conducted on mice model with mutations in genes encoding these maternally provided proteins and multi-component complexes showed impaired early embryonic development and hence leads to RM [94–100]. In a recent publication, the authors have identified human SCMC homologous genes (*NLRP5*, *OOEP*, *TLE6*, and *KHDC3L*) to be specifically expressed in the oocytes of human fetal ovaries and concluded that the human SCMC and its regulators may too have similar central role in early embryonic development. Investigating these oocyte-specific genes can thus provide answer for many unresolved RM cases [101]. In this context, various oocyte-specific transcription factors like *FIGLA*, *NOBOX*, *SOHLH1*, and *SOHLH2* have been found to regulate the expression of important MEG like *PADI6*, *KHDC3L*, *NLRP* gene family, *Pou5f1* [97, 102–109]. The same oocyte-specific transcriptional factors have been identified to have established role in controlling the expression of genes involved follicular development also [105–108, 110–112]. Furthermore, mutations in genes encoding these transcription factors are found to be associated with POI [52, 62, 68,

113–119]. This suggests an interconnected pathway between various facets of reproduction, viz. folliculogenesis and establishment of OR, pathogenic depletion of OR and RM.

Another important ovarian transcription factor is *FOXO3* which plays a key role in appropriate maintenance of the ovarian functioning, belongs to the *FOXO* (Forkhead box O) family of transcription factors, it acts as a key regulator for follicle activation or quiescence [Hopkins et al. 2014]. Constitutive activation of this protein blocks primordial follicle growth and thus induces infertility [120]. Other member of this family, *FOXO1a*, regulates the cell cycle progression [121]. A number of studies have described potential POI-causing variants both in *FOXO3A* and *FOXO1A* [122, 123]. *FOXL2*, which also belongs to fork head family, is also identified to function as the central transcription factor of the ovary and is essential for follicular maturation and maintenance of ovarian identity [124]. Heterozygous mutations in *FOXL2* have been identified in 90% cases of BPES (Blepharophimosis, ptosis, epicanthus inversus syndrome) [125–127], an autosomal dominant syndrome with complex eyelid malformations either associated with POI (type I BPES) or not (type II). *FOXL2* mutation has also been reported in isolated form of POI [128, 129].

Evidences have proved the role of these *FOX* factors in regulating the development and differentiation of endometrial cells during pregnancy also. This process is called as endometrial decidualization, and it is indispensable for the placental formation as it helps in maintaining the proper microenvironment for the implantation and growth of the embryo. An impaired decidualization of endometrium disables embryo-maternal recognition and selection upon implantation, which causes RM [130–133]. For instance, *FOXO1* protein is recognized to have a critical role in regulation of progesterone-dependent endometrial decidualization and protection of the feto-maternal interface against oxidative damage during pregnancy [134–137]. Similarly, another forkhead protein implicated in POI, i.e., *FOXL2*, has been recently shown to be strongly expressed in the uterine tissue of human, mice, and bovine besides its early expression in the ovarian follicles and granulosa cells [138–140]. Studies have also shown that *FOXL2* controls the expression profile of the endometrial genes and plays a pivotal role in regulating uterus receptivity and embryo implantation [141, 142]. Owing to high level of expressivity and functionality of these *FOX* proteins in the uterine tissue, in addition to ovaries, speculates that mutation in these genes may have significant implication in RM alongside with their putative role in POI.

Conclusion

In summary, it is understood that the clinical miscarriages result either when a poor quality oocyte develops into poor quality embryo which subsequently fails to implant properly,

or when a high-quality embryo gets implanted in a hostile uterine environment which does not support the embryo growth. As there are evidences, the oocyte quality, embryogenesis, and also the uterine microenvironment are governed by various oocyte-specific genes, while most of these genes are also implicated in POI, thus a connecting etiological link between infertility and RM could be thought of. Interrogating the oocyte-specific genes with suspected roles in reproductive biology, in cases of unexplained RM, may open new possibilities in widening our understanding of RM pathophysiology.

Acknowledgments The author is thankful Council of Science and Industrial Research (CSIR)–New Delhi for providing her fellowship.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

1. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists (RCOG). The investigation and treatment of couples with recurrent first-trimester and second-trimester miscarriage. Green-top Guideline No. 17. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists (RCOG), 2011.
2. Coulam CB. Epidemiology of recurrent spontaneous abortion. *Am J Reprod Immunol.* 1991;26:23–7.
3. Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists, Scientific Advisory Committee, Guideline No. 17. The Investigation and treatment of couples with recurrent miscarriage. 2011.
4. Macklon NS, Geraedts JP, Fauser BC. Conception to ongoing pregnancy: the 'black box' of early pregnancy loss. *Hum Reprod Update.* 2002;8(4):333–43.
5. McNamee K, Dawood F, Farquharson R. Recurrent miscarriage and thrombophilia: an update. *Curr Opin Obstet Gynecol.* 2012;24:229–34.
6. Duckitt K, Qureshi A. Recurrent miscarriage. *Clin Evid.* 2011;2: 1409.
7. American College of Obstetrics and Gynecologists Committee on Practice Bulletins: ACOG Practice Bulletin. Paper 40. *Obstet Gynecol* 2011.
8. Cohn DM, Goddijn M, Middeldorp S, et al. Recurrent miscarriage and antiphospholipid antibodies: prognosis of subsequent pregnancy. *J Thromb Haemost.* 2010;8:2208–13.
9. Patel BG, Lessey BA. Clinical assessment and management of the endometrium in recurrent early pregnancy loss. *Semin Reprod Med.* 2011;29:491–506.
10. Management of Recurrent Early Pregnancy Loss. Washington, DC: The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists; 2001. The American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. (ACOG Practice Bulletin No. 24).
11. Ali O, Hakimi I, Chanana A, et al. Grossesse sur utérus cloisonné menée à terme: à propos d'un cas avec revue de la littérature. *The Pan African Medical Journal.* 2015;22:219.
12. Pluchino N, Drakopoulos P, Wenger JM, Petignat P, Streuli I, Genazzani AR. Hormonal causes of recurrent pregnancy loss (RPL). *Hormones (Athens).* 2014;13(3):314–22.

13. Practice Committee of the American Society for Reproductive Medicine. Evaluation and treatment of recurrent pregnancy loss: a committee opinion. *Fertil Steril*. 2012;98(5):1103–11.
14. Jovanovic L, Knopp H, Kim H, et al. Elevated pregnancy losses at high and low extremes of maternal glucose in early normal and diabetic pregnancies: evidence for a protective adaptation in diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2005;28(5):1113–7.
15. Cleary-Goldman J, Malone FD, Lambert-Messerlian G, Sullivan L, Canick J, Porter TF, et al. Maternal thyroid hypofunction and pregnancy outcome. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2008;112(1):85–92.
16. Sarkar D. Recurrent pregnancy loss in patients with thyroid dysfunction. *Indian Journal of Endocrinology and Metabolism*. 2012;16(2):S350–1.
17. Shah D, Nagarajan N. Luteal insufficiency in first trimester. *Indian Journal of Endocrinology and Metabolism*. 2013;17(1):44–9.
18. Laurino MY, Bennett RL, Saraiya DS, Baumeister L, Doyle DL, Leppig K, et al. Genetic evaluation and counseling of couples with recurrent miscarriage: recommendations of the National Society of genetic counselors. *J Genet Couns*. 2005;14(3):165–81.
19. Stephenson MD, Sierra S. Reproductive outcomes in recurrent pregnancy loss associated with a parental carrier of a structural chromosome rearrangement. *Hum Reprod*. 2006;21(4):1076–82.
20. Carp H, Guetta E, Dorf H, Soriano D, Barkai G, Schiff E. Embryonic karyotype in recurrent miscarriage with parental karyotypic aberrations. *Fertil Steril*. 2006;85(2):446–50.
21. Benedetto C, Tibaldi C, Marozio L, Marini S, Masuelli G, Pelissetto S, et al. Cervicovaginal infections during pregnancy: epidemiological and microbiological aspects. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2004;16(2):9–12.
22. Srinivas SK, Ma Y, Sammel MD, Chou D, McGrath C, Parry S, et al. Placental inflammation and viral infection are implicated in second trimester pregnancy loss. *Am J Obstet Gynecol*. 2006;195:797–802.
23. Katz-Jaffe MG, Surrey ES, Minjarez DA, Gustofson RL, Stevens JM, Schoolcraft WB.
24. Association of abnormal ovarian reserve parameters with a higher incidence of aneuploid blastocysts. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2013 ; 121(1):71–7.
25. Matthews TJ, Hamilton BE. Delayed childbearing: more women are having their first child later in life. *NCHS Data Brief*. 2009;21:1–8.
26. Nybo Anderson AM, Wohlfahrt J, Christens P, et al. Maternal age and fetal loss: population based register linkage study. *BMJ*. 2000;320:1708–12.
27. Hassold T, Hall H, Hunt P. The origin of human aneuploidy: where we have been, where we are going. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2007;16:R203–8.
28. Nagaoka SI, Hassold TJ, Hunt PA. Human aneuploidy: mechanisms and new insights into an age-old problem. *Nat Rev Genet*. 2012;13:493–504.
29. Quenby S, Vince G, Farquharson R, Aplin J. OPINION Recurrent miscarriage: A defect in nature's quality control? *Hum Reprod*. Aug. 2002;17(8):1959–63.
30. Choi TY, Lee HM, Park WK, Jeong SY, Moon HS. Spontaneous abortion and recurrent miscarriage: a comparison of cytogenetic diagnosis in 250 cases. *Obstet Gynecol Sci*. 2014;57:518–25.
31. Kwinecka-Dmitriew B, Zakrzewska M, Latos-Bieleńska A, Skrzypczak J. Frequency of chromosomal aberrations in material from abortions. *Ginekol Pol*. 2010;81(12):896–901.
32. Wang YA, Farquhar C, Sullivan EA. Donor age is a major determinant of success of oocyte donation/recipient programme. *Hum Reprod*. 2012;27(1):118–25.
33. Sauer MV, Paulson RJ, Lobo RA. Pregnancy after age 50: application of oocyte donation to women after natural menopause. *Lancet*. 1993;341:321–3.
34. Sauer MV, Paulson RJ, Lobo RA. Pregnancy in women 50 or more years of age: outcomes of 22 consecutively established pregnancies from oocyte donation. *Fertil Steril*. 1995;64:111–5.
35. Antinori S, Versaci C, Gholami GH, Panci C, Caffà B. Oocyte donation in menopausal women. *Hum Reprod*. 1993;8:1487–90.
36. Check JH, Nowroozi K, Barnea ER, Shaw KJ, Sauer MV. Successful delivery after age 50: a report of two cases as a result of oocyte donation. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1993;81:835–6.
37. Sills ES, Anthony MM, Walsh PH. Ovarian reserve screening in infertility: practical applications and theoretical directions for research. *Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol*. 2009;146(1):30–6.
38. May-Panloup P, Ferré-L'Hôtelier V, Morinière C, Marcaillou C, Lemerle S, Malinge MC, et al. Molecular characterization of corona radiata cells from patients with diminished ovarian reserve using microarray and microfluidic-based gene expression profiling. *Hum Reprod*. 2012;27(3):829–43.
39. El Toukhy T, Khalaf Y, Hart R, Taylor A, Braude P; young age does not protect against the adverse effects of reduced ovarian reserve—an eight year study. *Hum Reprod*. 2002;17(6):1519–24.
40. Maroulis GB. Effect of aging on fertility and pregnancy. *Semin Reprod Endocrinol*. 1991;9:165–75.
41. Volarcik K, Sheean L, Goldfarb J, Woods L, Abdul-Karim FW, Hunt P. The meiotic competence of in-vitro matured human oocytes is influenced by donor age: evidence that folliculogenesis is compromised in the reproductively aged ovary. *Hum Reprod*. 1998;13:154–60.
42. Delhanty JD. Mechanisms of aneuploidy induction in human oogenesis and early embryogenesis. *Cytogenet Genome Res*. 2005;111:237–44. 192
43. Pellestor F, Andre' OB, Anahory T, Hamamah S. The occurrence of aneuploidy in human: lessons from the cytogenetic studies of human oocytes. *Eur J Med Genet*. 2006;49:103–16. 193
44. Tsutsumi M, Fujiwara R, Nishizawa H, Ito M, Kogo H, Inagaki H, et al. Agerelated decrease of meiotic cohesins in human oocytes. *PLoS One*. 2014;9:e96710.
45. Atasever M, Soyman Z, Demirel E, Gencdal S, Kelekci S. Diminished ovarian reserve: is it a neglected cause in the assessment of recurrent miscarriage? A cohort study. *Fertil Steril*. 2016;105(5):1236–40.
46. Hansen KR, Knowlton NS, Thyer AC, Charleston JS, Soules MR, Klein NA. A new model of reproductive aging: the decline in ovarian non-growing follicle number from birth to menopause. *Hum Reprod*. 2008;23:699–708.
47. Wallace WH, Kelsey TW. Human ovarian reserve from conception to the menopause. *PLoS One*. 2010;5(1):e8772.
48. Oktem O, Urman B. Understanding follicle growth in vivo. *Hum Reprod*. 2010;25(12):2944–54. <https://doi.org/10.1093/humrep/deq275>. Review
49. Ottolenghi C, Uda M, Hamatani T, Crisponi L, Garcia JE, KoM PG, et al. Aging of oocyte, ovary, and human reproduction. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 2004;1034:117–31.
50. Broekmans FJ, Knauff EA, te Velde ER, Macklon NS, Fauser BC. Female reproductive ageing: current knowledge and future trends. *Trends Endocrinol Metab*. 2007;18:58–65.
51. Chapman C, Cree L, Shelling AN. The genetics of premature ovarian failure: current perspectives. *Int J Womens Health*. 2015;7:799–810.
52. Qin Y, Jiao X, Simpson JL. Chen ZJ genetics of primary ovarian insufficiency: new developments and opportunities. *Hum Reprod Update*. 2015;21(6):787–808.
53. Hakim RB, Gray RH, Zacur H. Infertility and early pregnancy loss. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1995;172(5):1510–7.
54. Coulam CB. Association between infertility and spontaneous abortion. *Am J Reprod Immunol*. 1992;27(3–4):128–9.
55. Molo MW, Kelly M, Balos R, Mullaney K, Radwanska E. Incidence of fetal loss in infertility patients after detection of fetal

- heart activity with early transvaginal ultrasound. *J Reprod Med.* 1993;38(10):804–6.
56. Liu HC, Rosenwaks Z. Early pregnancy wastage in IVF (in vitro fertilization) patients. *J In Vitro Fert Embryo Transf.* 1991;8(2):65–72.
 57. Cocksedge KA, Li TC, Saravelos SH, Metwally MA. Reappraisal of the role of polycystic ovary syndrome in recurrent miscarriage. *Reprod BioMed Online.* 2008;17(1):151–60.
 58. Trostad L, Magnus P, Moffett A, Stoltenberg C. The effect of recurrent miscarriage and infertility on the risk of pre-eclampsia. *BJOG.* 2009;116(1):108–13.
 59. Coulam CB, Adamson SC, Annegers JF. Incidence of premature ovarian failure. *Obstet Gynecol.* 1986;67:604–6.
 60. Torrealday S, Kodaman P, Pal L. Premature Ovarian Insufficiency - an update on recent advances in understanding and management. *F1000Research.* 2017;6:2069.
 61. Sato Y, Kawamura N, Kawamura K. Infertility Treatment in Primary Ovarian Insufficiency: Fertility Preservation and In Vitro Activation. *J Gynecol Women's Health.* 2017; 7(1):JGWH.MS.ID.555704.
 62. Qin Y, Choi Y, Zhao H, Simpson JL, Chen ZJ, Rajkovic A. NOBOX homeobox mutation causes premature ovarian failure. *Am J Hum Genet.* 2007;81(3):576–81.
 63. Lourenço D, Brauner R, Lin L, De Perdigão A, Weryha G, et al. Mutations in NR5A1 associated with ovarian insufficiency. *N Engl J Med.* 2009;360(12):1200–10.
 64. Rah H, Jeon YJ, Ko JJ, Kim JH, Kim YR, Cha SH, et al. Association of inhibin α gene promoter polymorphisms with risk of idiopathic primary ovarian insufficiency in Korean women. *Maturitas.* 2014;77(2):163–7.
 65. Chand AL, Ponnampalam AP, Harris SE, et al. Mutational analysis of BMP15 and GDF9 as candidate genes for premature ovarian failure. *Fertil Steril.* 2006;86(4):1009–12.
 66. Di Pasquale E, Beck-Peccoz P, Persani L. Hypergonadotropic ovarian failure associated with an inherited mutation of human bone morphogenetic protein-15 (BMP15) gene. *Am J Hum Genet.* 2004;75(1):106–11.
 67. Santos MG, Machado AZ, Martins CN, et al. Homozygous Inactivating Mutation in NANOS3 in Two Sisters with Primary Ovarian Insufficiency. *Biomed Res Int.* 2014;2014(787465):8.
 68. Wu X, Wang B, Dong Z, Zhou S, Liu Z, Shi G, et al. A NANOS3 mutation linked to protein degradation causes premature ovarian insufficiency. *Cell Death Dis.* 2013;4:e825.
 69. Tucker EJ, Grover SR, Bachelot A, Touraine P, Sinclair AH. Premature ovarian insufficiency: new perspectives on genetic cause and phenotypic Spectrum. *Endocr Rev.* 2016;37(6):609–35.
 70. Fonseca DJ, Patiño LC, Suárez YC, et al. Next generation sequencing in women affected by nonsyndromic premature ovarian failure displays new potential causative genes and mutations. *Fertil Steril.* 2015;104(1):154–62. e2
 71. Aittomäki K, Lucena JL, Pakarinen P, et al. Mutation in the follicle-stimulating hormone receptor gene causes hereditary hypergonadotropic ovarian failure. *Cell.* 1995;82(6):959–68.
 72. Caburet S, Arboleda VA, Llano E, Overbeek PA, Barbero JL, Oka K, et al. Mutant cohesin in premature ovarian failure. *N Engl J Med.* 2014;370(10):943–9.
 73. Takebayashi K, Takakura K, Wang H, Kimura F, et al. Mutation analysis of the growth differentiation factor-9 and -9B genes in patients with premature ovarian failure and polycystic ovary syndrome. *Fertil Steril.* 2000;74:976–9.
 74. Di Pasquale E, Rossetti R, Marozzi A, Bodega B, et al. Identification of new variants of human BMP15 gene in a large cohort of women with premature ovarian failure. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2006;91(5):1976–9.
 75. Dixit H, Rao LK, Padmalatha V, Kanakavalli M, Deenadayal M, Gupta N, et al. Mutational screening of the coding region of growth differentiation factor 9 gene in Indian women with ovarian failure. *Menopause.* 2005;12(6):749–54.
 76. Persani L, Rossetti R, Cacciari C. Genes involved in human premature ovarian failure. *J Mol Endocrinol.* 2010;45(5):257–79.
 77. Tiotiu D, Alvaro Mercadal B, Imbert R, Verbist J, Demeestere I, de Leener A, et al. Variants of the BMP15 gene in a cohort of patients with premature ovarian failure. *Hum Reprod.* 2010;25(6):1581–7.
 78. Auclair S, Rossetti R, Meslin C, Monestier O, di Pasquale E, Pascal G, et al. Positive selection in bone morphogenetic protein 15 targets a natural mutation associated with primary ovarian insufficiency in human. *PLoS One.* 2013;8(10):e78199.
 79. Ferrarini E, Russo L, Fruzzetti F, Agretti P, De Marco G, et al. Clinical characteristics and genetic analysis in women with premature ovarian insufficiency. *Maturitas.* 2013;74(1):61–7.
 80. Dixit H, Rao LK, Padmalatha VV, Kanakavalli M, et al. Missense mutations in the BMP15 gene are associated with ovarian failure. *Hum Genet.* 2006;119(4):408–15.
 81. Laissue P, Christin-Maitre S, Touraine P, Kuttann F, Ritvos O, Aittomaki K, et al. Mutations and sequence variants in GDF9 and BMP15 in patients with premature ovarian failure. *Eur J Endocrinol.* 2006;154(5):739–44.
 82. Kovanci E, Rohozinski J, Simpson JL, Heard MJ, et al. Growth differentiating factor-9 mutations may be associated with premature ovarian failure. *Fertil Steril.* 2007;87(1):143–6.
 83. Wang TT, Ke ZH, Song Y, Chen LT, Chen XJ, Feng C, et al. Identification of a mutation in GDF9 as a novel cause of diminished ovarian reserve in young women. *Hum Reprod.* 2013;28(9):2473–81.
 84. Simpson CM, Robertson DM, Al-Musawi SL, Heath DA, et al. Aberrant GDF9 expression and activation are associated with common human ovarian disorders. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2014;99(4):E615–24.
 85. Gode F, Gulekli B, Dogan E, Korhan P, Dogan S, Bige O, et al. Influence of follicular fluid GDF9 and BMP15 on embryo quality. *Fertil Steril.* 2011;95(7):2274–8.
 86. Wu Y-T, Tang L, Cai J, Lu X-E, Xu J, Zhu X-M, et al. High bone morphogenetic protein-15 level in follicular fluid is associated with high quality oocyte and subsequent embryonic development. *Hum Reprod.* 2007;22(6):1526–31.
 87. Li Y, Li RQ, Ou SB, Zhang NF, Ren L, Wei LN, et al. Increased GDF9 and BMP15 mRNA levels in cumulus granulosa cells correlate with oocyte maturation, fertilization, and embryo quality in humans. *Reprod Biol Endocrinol.* 2014;12:81.
 88. Lee MT, Bonneau AR, Giraldez AJ. Zygotic genome activation during the maternal-to-zygotic transition. *Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol.* 2014;30:581–613.
 89. Tadros W, Lipshitz HD. The maternal-to-zygotic transition: a play in two acts. *Development.* 2009;136:3033–42. <https://doi.org/10.1242/dev.033183>.
 90. Langley AR, Smith JC, Stemple DL, Harvey SA. New insights into the maternal to zygotic transition. *Development.* 2014;141:3834–41.
 91. Lu X, Gao Z, Qin D, Li L. A maternal functional module in the mammalian oocyte-to-embryo transition. *Trends Mol Med.* 2017;23(11):1014–23.
 92. Matzuk MM, Burns KH, Viveiros MM, Eppig JJ. Intercellular communication in the mammalian ovary: oocytes carry the conversation. *Science.* 2002;296:2178–80.
 93. Bettegowda A, Lee KB, Smith GW. Cytoplasmic and nuclear determinants of the maternal-to-embryonic transition. *Reprod Fertil Dev.* 2008;20(1):45–53.
 94. Flach G, Johnson MH, Braude PR, Taylor RA, Bolton VN. The transition from maternal to embryonic control in the 2-cell mouse embryo. *EMBO J.* 1982;1:681–6.
 95. Li L, Zheng P, Dean J. Maternal control of early mouse development. *Development.* 2010;137(6):859–70.

96. Huang JY, Su M, Lin SH, Kuo PL. A genetic association study of NLRP2 and NLRP7 genes in idiopathic recurrent miscarriage. *Hum Reprod.* 2013;28(4):1127–34.
97. Qian J, Nguyen NMP, Rezaei M, Huang B, Tao Y, Zhang XF, et al. Biallelic PADI6 variants linking infertility, miscarriages, and hydatidiform moles. *Eur J Hum Genet.* 2018;26(7):1007–13.
98. Fogarty NME, McCarthy A, Snijders KE, Powell BE, Kubikova N, Blakeley P, et al. Genome editing reveals a role for OCT4 in human embryogenesis. *Nature.* 2017;550(7674):67–73.
99. Zhang P, Dixon M, Zucchelli M, Hambiliki F, Levkov L, Hovatta O, et al. Expression analysis of the NLRP gene family suggests a role in human preimplantation development. *PLoS One.* 2008;3(7):e2755.
100. Li L, Baibakov B, Dean J. A subcortical maternal complex essential for preimplantation mouse embryogenesis. *Dev Cell.* 2008;15(3):416–25.
101. Zhu K, Yan L, Zhang X, Lu X, Wang T, Yan J, et al. Identification of a human subcortical maternal complex. *Mol Hum Reprod.* 2015;21(4):320–9.
102. Wu G, Schöler HR. Role of Oct4 in the early embryo development. *Cell Regeneration.* 2014;3(1):7.
103. Joshi S, Davies H, Sims LP, Levy SE, Dean J. Ovarian gene expression in the absence of FIGLA, an oocyte-specific transcription factor. *BMC Dev Biol.* 2007;7:67.
104. Choi Y, Qin Y, Berger M, Ballow D, et al. Microarray analyses of newborn mouse ovaries lacking Nobox. *Biol Reprod.* 2007;77(2):312–9.
105. Choi Y, Rajkovic A. Characterization of NOBOX DNA binding specificity and its regulation of Gdf9 and Pou5f1 promoters. *J Biol Chem.* 2006;281(47):35747–56.
106. Tsuda M, Sasaoka Y, Kiso M, Abe K, Haraguchi S, Kobayashi S, et al. Conserved role of nanos proteins in germ cell development. *Science.* 2003;301:1239–41.
107. Stephanie A. Pangas, Aleksandar Rajkovic; transcriptional regulation of early oogenesis: in search of masters. *Hum Reprod Update.* 2006;12(1):65–76.
108. Rajkovic A, Pangas SA, Ballow D, Suzumori N, Matzuk MM. NOBOX deficiency disrupts early folliculogenesis and oocyte-specific gene expression. *Science.* 2004;305:1157–9.
109. Tripurani SK, Lee K-B, Wang L, Wee G, Smith GW, Lee YS, et al. A novel functional role for the oocyte-specific transcription factor newborn ovary Homeobox (NOBOX) during early embryonic development in cattle. *Endocrinology.* 2011;152(3):1013–23.
110. Lim E-J, Choi Y. Transcription factors in the maintenance and survival of primordial follicles. *Clinical and Experimental Reproductive Medicine.* 2012;39(4):127–31. <https://doi.org/10.5653/cecm.2012.39.4.127>.
111. Shin YH, Ren Y, Suzuki H, Golnoski KJ, Ahn HW, Mico V, et al. Transcription factors SOHLH1 and SOHLH2 coordinate oocyte differentiation without affecting meiosis I. *J Clin Invest.* 2017;127(6):2106–17. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI90281>.
112. Pangas SA, Choi Y, Ballow DJ, Zhao Y, Westphal H, Matzuk MM, et al. Oogenesis requires germ cell-specific transcriptional regulators Sohlh1 and Lhx8. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2006;103(21):8090–5. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0601083103>.
113. Bouilly J, Beau I, Barraud S, Bernard V, Azibi K, Fagart J, et al. Identification of multiple gene mutations accounts for a new genetic architecture of primary ovarian insufficiency. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2016;101(12):4541–50.
114. Zhao S, Li G, Dagleish R, Vujovic S, Jiao X, Li J, et al. Transcription factor SOHLH1 potentially associated with primary ovarian insufficiency. *Fertil Steril.* 2015;103(2):548–53. e5
115. Qin Y, Jiao X, Dagleish R, Vujovic S, Li J, et al. Novel variants in the SOHLH2 gene are implicated in human premature ovarian failure. *Fertil Steril.* 2014;101(4):1104–9. e6
116. Ferrari I, Bouilly J, Beau I, Guizzardi F, Ferlin A, Pollazzon M, et al. Impaired protein stability and nuclear localization of NOBOX variants associated with premature ovarian insufficiency. *Hum Mol Genet.* 2016;25(23):5223–33.
117. Li L, Wang B, Zhang W, Chen B, Luo M, Wang J, et al. A homozygous NOBOX truncating variant causes defective transcriptional activation and leads to primary ovarian insufficiency. *Hum Reprod.* 2017;32(1):248–55.
118. Jiao X, Qin Y, Li G et al. Novel NR5A1 Missense Mutation in Premature Ovarian Failure: Detection in Han Chinese Indicates Causation in Different Ethnic Groups. Sun Q-Y, ed. *PLoS ONE.* 2013; 8(9):e74759.
119. Tosh D, Rani HS, Murty US, Deenadayal A, Grover P. Mutational analysis of the FIGLA gene in women with idiopathic premature ovarian failure. *Menopause.* 2015;22(5):520–6.
120. Liu L, Rajareddy S, Reddy P, du C, Jagarlamudi K, Shen Y, et al. Infertility caused by retardation of follicular development in mice with oocyte-specific expression of Foxo3a. *Development.* 2007;134:199–209.
121. Cunningham MA, Zhu Q, Hammond JM. FoxO1a can alter cell cycle progression by regulating the nuclear localization of p27kip in granulosa cells. *Mol Endocrinol.* 2004;18:1756–67.
122. Vinci G, Christin-Maitre S, Pasquier M, et al. FOXO3a variants in patients with premature ovarian failure. *Clin Endocrinol.* 2008;68:495–7.
123. Watkins WJ, Umbers AJ, Woad KJ, Harris SE, et al. Mutational screening of FOXO3A and FOXO1A in women with premature ovarian failure. *Fertil Steril.* 2006;5:1518–21.
124. Pisarska MD, Bae J, Klein C, Aaron J, Hsueh W. Forkhead L2 Is Expressed in the Ovary and Represses the Promoter Activity of the Steroidogenic Acute Regulatory Gene. *Endocrinology.* 2004;145(7):3424–33.
125. Crisponi L, Deiana M, Loi A, Chiappe F, Uda M, Amati P, et al. The putative forkhead transcription factor FOXL2 is mutated in blepharophimosis/ptosis/epicanthus inversus syndrome. *Nat Genet.* 2001;27:159–66.
126. Méduri G, Bachelot A, Duflos C, et al. FOXL2 mutations lead to different ovarian phenotypes in BPES patients: case report. *Hum Reprod.* 2010;25:235–43.
127. Nallathambi J, Moumné L, De Baere E, et al. A novel polyalanine expansion in FOXL2: the first evidence for a recessive form of the blepharophimosis syndrome (BPES) associated with ovarian dysfunction. *Hum Genet.* 2007;121:107–12.
128. Harris SE, Chand AL, Winship IM, Gersak K, Aittomäki K, Shelling AN. Identification of novel mutations in FOXL2 associated with premature ovarian failure. *Mol Hum Reprod.* 2002;8(8):729–33.
129. Laissue P, Lakhil B, Benayoun BA, Dipietromaria A, Braham R, Elghezal H, et al. Functional evidence implicating FOXL2 in non-syndromic premature ovarian failure and in the regulation of the transcription factor OSR2. *J Med Genet.* 2009;46:455–7.
130. Salker M, Teklenburg G, Molokhia M et al. Natural Selection of Human Embryos: Impaired Decidualization of Endometrium Disables Embryo-Maternal Interactions and Causes Recurrent Pregnancy Loss. Vitzthum VJ, ed. *PLoS ONE.* 2010; 5(4):e10287.
131. Salker MS, Christian M, Steel JH, Nautiyal J, Lavery S, Trew G, et al. Deregulation of the serum- and glucocorticoid-inducible kinase SGK1 in the endometrium causes reproductive failure. *Nat Med.* 2011;17:1509–13.
132. Salker MS, Nautiyal J, Steel JH, Webster Z, Šućurović S, Nicou M, et al. Disordered IL-33/ST2 activation in decidualizing stromal cells prolongs uterine receptivity in women with recurrent pregnancy. *PLoS One.* 2012;7(12):e52252.

133. Lucas ES, Dyer NP, Murakami K, Hou Lee Y, Chan YW, Grimaldi G, et al. Loss of endometrial plasticity in recurrent pregnancy loss. *Stem Cells*. 2016;34:346–56.
134. Christian M, Zhang X, Schneider-Merck T, Unterman TG, Gellersen B, White JO, et al. Cyclic AMP-induced forkhead transcription factor, FKHR, cooperates with CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein β in differentiating human endometrial stromal cells. *J Biol Chem*. 2002;277:20825–32.
135. Labied S, Kajihara T, Madureira PA, Fusi L, Jones MC, Higham JM, et al. Progestins regulate the expression and activity of the Forkhead transcription factor FOXO1 in differentiating human endometrium. *Mol Endocrinol*. 2006;20(1):35–44.
136. Kajihara T, Jones M, Fusi L, Takano M, Feroze-Zaidi F, Pirianov G, et al. Differential expression of FOXO1 and FOXO3a confers resistance to oxidative cell death upon endometrial decidualization. *Mol Endocrinol*. 2006;20(10):2444–55.
137. Kajihara T, Brosens JJ, Ishihara O. The role of FOXO1 in the decidual transformation of the endometrium and early pregnancy. *Med Mol Morphol*. 2013;46(2):61–8.
138. Bellessort B, Bachelot A, Heude É, Alfama G, Fontaine A, Le Cardinal M, et al. Role of Foxl2 in uterine maturation and function. *Hum Mol Genet*. 2015;24(11):3092–103.
139. Governini L, Carrarelli P, Rocha AL, Leo VD, Luddi A, Arcuri F, et al. FOXL2 in human endometrium: Hyperexpressed in endometriosis. *Reprod Sci*. 2014;21(10):1249–55.
140. Eozenou C, Vitorino Carvalho A, Forde N, Giraud-Delville C, Gall L, Lonergan P, et al. FOXL2 is regulated during the bovine estrous cycle and its expression in the endometrium is independent of conceptus-derived interferon tau. *Biol Reprod*. 2012;87(2):32.
141. Popovici RM, Betzler NK, Krause MS, Luo M, Jauckus J, Germeyer A, et al. Gene expression profiling of human endometrial-trophoblast interaction in a coculture model. *Endocrinology*. 2006;147(12):5662–75.
142. Elbaz M, Hadas R, Bilezikjian LM, Gershon E. Uterine Foxl2 regulates the adherence of the Trophectoderm cells to the endometrial epithelium. *Reprod Biol Endocrinol*. 2018;16:12.