

1 *Review*

2 *Machine learning in fetal cardiology: what to expect.*

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22 **ABSTRACT**

23 In Fetal Cardiology, imaging, and especially echocardiography, has demonstrated to help in the diagnosis and
24 monitoring of fetuses with a compromised cardiovascular system potentially associated to several fetal conditions.
25 Different ultrasound approaches are currently used to evaluate fetal cardiac structure and function, including
26 conventional 2D imaging, M-mode and Tissue Doppler Imaging among others. However, assessing the fetal heart
27 is still challenging mainly due to involuntary movements of the fetus, the small size of the heart and the lack of
28 expertise in fetal echocardiography of some sonographers. Therefore, the use of new technologies to improve the
29 primary acquired images, help extracting measurements, or to aid in the diagnosis of cardiac abnormalities, is of
30 great importance for optimal assessment of the fetal heart. Machine learning (ML) is a computer science discipline
31 focused on teaching a computer to perform tasks with specific goals without explicitly programming the rules on
32 how to perform this task. In this review we provide a brief overview on the potential of ML techniques to improve
33 the evaluation of fetal cardiac function by optimising the image acquisition and quantification/segmentation, as
34 well as aid in improving the prenatal diagnoses of fetal cardiac remodelling and abnormalities.

35

36 **Keywords:** machine learning; deep learning; artificial intelligence; fetal cardiology; obstetrics;
37 echocardiography; decision support systems.

38 1. Introduction

39 Fetal echocardiography was introduced to assess fetal cardiac function only 15 years ago (in 2004 the first study
40 was performed). It has evolved from the description of cardiac anatomical abnormalities towards the quantitative
41 assessment of cardiac dimensions, shape and function, and demonstrated to be useful in the diagnosis and
42 monitoring of fetuses with a compromised cardiovascular system related to several fetal conditions, such as
43 intrauterine growth restriction (IUGR), twin-to-twin transfusion syndrome, congenital heart disease, etc [1–3].
44 Moreover, some cardiac parameters have already shown to be helpful to predict perinatal problems and long-term
45 cardiovascular outcome [4].

46 Different ultrasound (US) approaches are currently used to evaluate fetal cardiac function, including
47 conventional 2D imaging, M-mode, blood-pool and Tissue Doppler Imaging (TDI), 2D speckle tracking and 4D-
48 spatio-temporal imaging correlation (STIC) [4,5]. For any evaluation, an optimal image of the fetal heart is crucial
49 to adequately assess cardiac structure and function. However, assessing fetal cardiac function is still challenging
50 due to involuntary movements of the fetus, the small size of the heart, high heart rate, the limited access to the
51 fetus and the lack of expertise in fetal echocardiography of some sonographers. After having obtained an optimal
52 image, measurements have to be performed in order to extract relevant cardiac features that relate to remodelling
53 and functional status. Currently, these are mainly carried out manually by the sonographer, either during the
54 investigation or offline using a dedicated workstation. Therefore, the use of new technologies to improve the
55 primary acquired images or help extracting and standardising measurements is of great importance for optimal
56 assessment of the fetal heart.

57 Machine learning (ML) is a computer science discipline focused on teaching a computer to perform tasks,
58 with a specific goal in mind, without explicitly programming the rules on how to perform this task. Mathematically
59 speaking, learning occurs when a computer iteratively improves its performance on the given task (e.g.,
60 classification of a disease or estimation of clinical measurements) with experience, or in other words, when it is
61 exposed to data [6]. Usually, ML algorithms are classified in two approaches: supervised and unsupervised
62 learning algorithms (see Figure 1). Deep learning (DL), a popular algorithm (and often thought of when the term
63 Machine Learning is used) just a subset of machine learning that uses a layered structure of calculations know as
64 artificial neural networks (ANN) on unstructured data. Figure 2 illustrates the typical pipeline for both supervised
65 and unsupervised learning algorithms. Supervised learning requires explicit ground truth goals (diagnostic labels,
66 outcomes, reference image measurements, etc.) from which the algorithm can optimize its performance during
67 training. Supervised learning algorithms can be further classified into classification and regression (see Figure 1).
68 Classification techniques evaluate the given input and come up with a category such as ‘red’ or ‘blue’ or ‘disease’
69 or ‘non disease, while regression techniques result in a continuous output: the value of the predicted quantity (such
70 as a probability of a diagnosis). Besides DL, the most common classification algorithms include decision trees,
71 support vector machine (SVM), etc., while linear and logistic regressions are typical regression algorithms (see
72 Figure 1). On the other hand, unsupervised learning algorithms receive unlabelled examples and aim at
73 discovering main patterns or similarities in the data, which would correspond to different disease manifestations
74 or different phenotypes within a given disease, or different temporal evolution. Consequently, supervised learning
75 is commonly used when the final goal is well known at the time of learning and unsupervised learning is used as
76 an exploratory tool and usually the final goal follows from the analysis of the obtained results. Unsupervised
77 learning algorithms can be further classified into clustering and dimensionality reduction as illustrated in Figure

78 1. Typical clustering algorithms include K-means or Gaussian mixture models, while principal component
79 analysis (PCA), and linear discriminant analysis (LCA) are classical dimensionality reduction techniques.

80 Once ML models are trained, their performance on unseen data (referred to as *test set*) is known as the
81 model's generalizability (Figure 2). Models that perform considerably better on the training set compared to the
82 *test set* are overfitted, which means that they have a big adherence to the training cases, but new patients are not
83 correctly handled. Finding a good balance between training and testing performance is thus crucial for the
84 application of ML models in clinical settings. A related highly relevant risk when using ML for clinical decision
85 making is how to deal with, and not miss, rare occurrences in the (testing) data that were underrepresented in the
86 *training dataset*. To circumvent this risk, ML approaches (and especially supervised ones) need to be trained with
87 a dataset that sufficiently captures the phenomenon under study. For clinical decision making, an unsupervised
88 approach that highlights these rare instances might therefore be better as compared to a supervised one that forces
89 decisions towards what was trained for. In order to learn more about ML concepts, we refer the reader to the
90 review paper by Deo [7].

91 ML techniques can help to optimise image acquisition protocols, thus reducing the acquisition time and
92 ensuring optimal quality, and can help extracting comprehensive and standardised information for a better
93 evaluation of cardiac function. In this review we provide a brief overview on machine/deep learning applications
94 in obstetrics with a particular focus on the evaluation of fetal cardiac function by optimising the image acquisition
95 and quantification/segmentation, as well as aid in improving the prenatal diagnoses of fetal cardiac remodelling
96 and abnormalities.

97

98 **2. Machine learning for data acquisition**

99 Image acquisition is the first step towards building a system to optimise the characterisation of fetal cardiac
100 function. This step is of capital importance, as the extracted information will be greatly conditioned by the intrinsic
101 quality and amount of input data. The acquisition of the best standard fetal views is labour-intensive and relies on
102 the sonographer's experience. The resulting inter-operator variability in image acquisition hampers individual
103 temporal follow-up, or the combination of different data sources for research purposes. In this sense, ML-powered
104 acquisition methods to speed up the acquisition, decrease the learning curve, and standardise the resulting images
105 seem highly desirable, as they promise to boost data quality and standardisation with minimal human intervention.

106 The improvement of image acquisition using ML is based on evaluating the current (2D/3D) image on
107 the screen by scoring how closely it resembles the type of view that was intended. This view was learned during
108 a training phase (without explicitly defining the image appearance or content, this is learned by the algorithm).
109 Many ML approaches can be used, but deep learning, using ANN, seems the most promising.

110 The acquisition of the fetal facial standard plane (FFSP) is a requisite to extract biometric measurements
111 and perform diagnosis during US examination. Lei et al. [8] automated this task with a SVM classifier. More
112 recently, Yu et al. [9] leveraged the power of deep convolutional neural networks (CNNs) to automatically
113 recognize the FFSP during routine US examination. Another standard plane is that of the fetal abdominal region,
114 which allows measuring the abdominal circumference (AC) and estimating fetal weight as a proxy for fetal health.
115 CNNs have already been trained to automatically find the abdominal region in a US image, and then determine
116 image quality by assessing the goodness of depiction for key structures as the stomach bubble and the umbilical
117 vein [10]. In a similar fashion, Rahmutallah et al. [11,12] trained an Adaptive Boosting (AdaBoost) model to

118 detect these two structures in 2D US images for the purpose of scoring image quality. Other ensemble approaches
119 have been proposed to categorise unlabelled fetal 2D US images. In particular, Yaqub et al. used a random forest
120 (RF) classifier to detect meaningful structures from different regions inside the images [13]. A more ambitious
121 project using CNNs targeted the classification of a broader collection of fetal images planes, by automatic
122 recognition of 14 different fetal structures in 2D US images [14]. Concerning 3D fetal US, Raynaud et al. proposed
123 an ensemble of DL for feature extraction and RF for classification of organs with the purpose of automatically
124 encoding anatomical variability while discarding the fetus pose [15].

125 Detection of the standard scan plane in fetal brain US is an essential step in the assessment of fetal
126 development. This task was achieved by Li et al. [16] using a CNN approach in 3D fetal US. Concerning quality
127 control, Yaqub et al. proposed a DL solution that automatically assessed whether transventricular 2D US images
128 of the fetal brain met clinical standards [17]. Namely, they first localised the fetal brain, detected the regions of
129 interest, and finally learned the US patterns that enable plane verification. ML techniques have also been used to
130 automatically identify the transthalamic plane in 3D US, to then assess brain biometrics such as the fetal biparietal
131 diameter (BPD) and head circumference (HC) [18].

132 Specific studies involving ML techniques for imaging the fetal heart are still scarce. Among the few
133 examples found, Bridge et al. implemented a framework for tracking the key variables appearing in freehand 2D
134 US scanning videos of the healthy fetal heart, through the use of regression forests [19]. Concerning the electrical
135 activity, Yu et al. used independent component analysis [20] and Muduli et al. used DL to reconstruct the fetal-
136 electrocardiogram (EKG) from abdominal ECG recordings [21]. A next step towards automating the fetal US
137 scanning consists of coupling the image plane/volume recognition with a robot arm that performs the scanning,
138 which has been pioneered by Wang S et al. [22].

139 ML approaches for improved fetal data acquisition are already a reality in research settings and are
140 expected to become clinically available in the short-term (5 years). In the mid-term, ML techniques may be
141 combined with robotics to automatically extract standardised fetal imaging views.

142

143 **3. Machine learning for image quantification and feature extraction**

144 Fetal biometric parameters such as HC, BPD, AC, femur length (FL) or thickness of nuchal translucency are
145 commonly used for the estimation of fetal weight, gestational age (GA) and the detection of fetal abnormalities
146 during prenatal US examinations. An accurate estimation of fetal weight and GA is essential to detect any
147 abnormal fetal growth pattern, such as small or large for GA, intrauterine growth restriction (IUGR) or cardiac
148 abnormalities. Kim et al. have recently published a DL model to automatically calculate HC, together with the
149 BPD from 2D US images [23]. A different approach was used by Li et al., which first used RF to localise the fetal
150 head and then ellipse fitting to estimate HC from 2D US images [24]. Van Den Heuvel et al. went a step further
151 and implemented a DL model that calculated HC from obstetric sweep protocol data [25]. These data likely do
152 not contain standard planes, thus their method has a great potential to be applied in resource-constrained countries,
153 where there is a lack of skilled obstetricians. Lorenz et al. have recently published a pipeline combining RF, shape
154 models and CNNs to automatically perform view recognition and anatomical landmark location, with the
155 objective of measuring the AC [26] from 3D US recordings. Similarly, Kim et al. used a CNN to estimate AC
156 from 2D US data [27]. For further information on biometric measurements, we refer the reader to a recent review
157 of automated techniques for the interpretation of fetal abnormalities [28].

158 ML methods have been proposed in the last decades to improve the estimation of gestational age in
159 women with uncertain or unknown menstrual date [29] and to improve the estimation of fetal weight during
160 gestation. For example, Ashley I et al. [30] explored whether data available at birth can be used to accurately
161 predict estimated fetal weight over the course of gestation using different ML methods such as RF or regression
162 trees in a database of more than 10.000 normal and high-risk pregnancies. The authors found that ML algorithms
163 estimate fetal weight better than other commonly used methods. Chuang et al. [31] developed an ANN to estimate
164 fetal weight using morphometric data from 991 fetuses, reporting a mean absolute percent error of 6.15%.

165 Apart from measuring fetal biometrics and estimating fetal weight, recent ML approaches have been
166 geared towards segmentation to identify fetal structures and organs to timely find fetal abnormalities so that
167 necessary action can be taken. Namburete et al. used a RF classifier to segment cranial pixels in 2D US images
168 [32]. More recently, Li et al. used a DL approach to automatically segment the fetal body and the amniotic fluid
169 from 2D US data [33]. Other examples of DL for segmentation have targeted the fetal brain and lungs [34,35],
170 and these two organs plus the placenta and the maternal kidneys from magnetic resonance imaging [36]. Last, an
171 ensemble of decision trees has been used to automatically segment fetal brain structures in 3D US images [37].

172 Concerning the fetal heart, the bulk of research focuses on automatically measuring the heartbeat. Some
173 examples are the detection of cardiac activity from a predefined free-hand US sweep of the maternal abdomen
174 using a classification model [38], the extraction of fetal heart rate from cardiotocograms (CTG) using
175 dimensionality reduction [39], or measuring fetal QRS complexes from maternal ECG recordings using ANN
176 [40]. More recently, Sulas et al. have used ANN to detect heart beats from pulse-wave Doppler envelope signals
177 extracted from B-mode videos [41]. For more on measuring cardiac activity from fetal US using ML techniques,
178 the reader might be interested in the review paper by Alnuaimi et al. [42].

179 The application of ML algorithms to extract features from fetal echocardiographic data are already being
180 used in some high-end scanners, in particular for the calculation of pulsatility indices from peripheral blood flow
181 recordings. This is expected to be translated to cardiac flows soon. In the mid-term, these scanners will also
182 estimate the GA and assess the fetal growth based on the automatic extraction of the different biometric
183 measurements discussed above.

184

185 **4. Machine learning for fetal diagnosis**

186 Prenatal diagnosis of fetal abnormalities has greatly benefited from advances in US technology and, in the last
187 years also from the advances in ML. ML algorithms have been used in different applications within fetal US
188 medicine such as to predict preterm births [43,44], risk for euploidy, trisomy 21 and other chromosomal
189 aneuploidies [45] or the prediction of perinatal outcomes on asymptomatic short cervical length [46] among
190 others. Regarding fetal cardiology, one of the subfields in which ML has been extensively applied in the last
191 decades is in the improvement of the diagnosis of fetal hypoxia or acidaemia based on the analysis of CTG. CTG
192 is routinely used to record and monitor fetal heart rate and uterine contractions during antepartum and intrapartum
193 periods, to detect the symptoms of fetal distress as early as possible. In clinical practice, CTG traces are visually
194 examined by clinicians and their interpretation is largely dependent on clinician's expertise leading to high inter
195 and intra-observer variability. Therefore, despite the existence of standardised guidelines, the accuracy and
196 robustness of CTG to improve prenatal outcome remains controversial. The use of ML to improve the predictive
197 capacity of CTG recordings was first presented by Bassil et al. in the late 80's [47]. Since then, several attempts

198 have been made to increase the effectiveness of the automatic evaluation of CTG traced using different ML and
199 DL methods including ANN, SVM, or RF among others. Most of the publications have used two different open
200 access CTG databases to evaluate their proposed ML algorithms: one from the University Hospital in Brno (Czech
201 Republic), including 552 CTG recordings [49]; and another from the University of Porto (Portugal), which
202 includes 2126 CTG recordings [50]. We have summarised the publications on the use of ML in the analysis of
203 CTGs for the last 10 years in the Supplementary Table S1. For a review of older publications, we refer the reader
204 to the review of Graham E.M. et al. [48]. The best results were obtained by Iraj M.S. [51] using the Portuguese
205 database showing an accuracy of 99.5%. There have also been some attempts to translate this into clinical practice
206 by the development of software such as ‘Infant’, ‘PeriCALM’ [52,53] or ‘Foetos’ [54] or the development of
207 mobile/website applications [55,56] to provide additional support in the interpretation of CTG signals and
208 therefore to improve the assessment of fetal status. However, there is no evidence on whether these systems really
209 improved the prediction of fetal distress or acidaemia compared to visual CTG interpretation alone, and reports
210 about their clinical performance were not found. In a recent systematic review, the degree of inter-observer
211 reliability between human and ML interpretation of CTG signals was determined [57], concluding that the use of
212 ML for the interpretation of CTGs during labour does not improve neonatal outcome and has yet to prove its
213 reliability relative to expert observers. The root of the problem may be that any supervised ML-based system
214 needs to be trained with human annotations, and given that the benefit of CTGs themselves for labour monitoring
215 has not been clearly demonstrated, it is not surprising that adding an automatic system to evaluate the CTG signals
216 with similar information does not offer advantages in reducing adverse perinatal outcomes.

217 IUGR, which affects about 10% of the pregnancies, has been associated with cardiac remodelling in
218 utero that can persist postnatally [58–60]. An early detection of IUGR can improve the perinatal outcome of
219 these fetuses and reduce the risk of cardiovascular mortality in adulthood. The first study proposing the use of
220 ML for the detection of IUGR using biometric data was presented by Gurgen F. et al. in 1997 [61]. In this study
221 an ANN was implemented to approximate the growth curves of fetuses showing an accuracy of 95% in the
222 detection of IUGR. Later, Magenes G. et al. [62] proposed a SVM to detect IUGR using CTG data, showing good
223 classification results in a cohort of 70 fetuses. In 2014, Gadagkar A. et al. [63] developed an ANN system for the
224 diagnosis of IUGR using only 2D US morphometric measurements from almost 300 fetuses, showing similar
225 results that the ones obtained clinically in the same study population. Similarly, Rawat V. et al. [64] implemented
226 an ANN model using again 2D US morphometric measurements from a total of 120 fetuses. Recently, Kuhle S.
227 et al. [65] compared different ML methods to predict fetal growth abnormalities in a cohort of more than 30.000
228 patients. However, the authors reported that the ML methods used, did not offer any advantage over logistic
229 regression in the prediction of fetal growth abnormalities. The main limitation of all these studies is that the
230 detection of IUGR was performed considering only morphometric data, which only provide information about
231 the fetal weight, without considering any other data such as blood flow velocities or cardiac deformation measured
232 by Doppler or B-mode US respectively. It is known that IUGR fetuses show abnormal blood flow patterns in the
233 fetal circulation detected by Doppler US [66,67], and also signs of longitudinal systolic dysfunction [58]. It has
234 been recently demonstrated that unsupervised ML algorithms using both echocardiographic (including myocardial
235 strain traces) and clinical data can be used to find groups of similar patients within a heart failure cohort and
236 identify individuals with beneficial response to cardiac resynchronization therapy [68]. A similar approach
237 integrating clinical and heterogeneous echocardiographic data could be implemented to improve the detection of

238 IUGR fetuses, identify those at high risk of adverse perinatal outcome and aid clinicians in finding optimal
239 treatment strategies. However, ML methods require a large number of patients during training in order to be able
240 to capture the range of possible abnormalities, which is a limitation in fetal medicine as the number of patients is
241 scarce. One possibility to overcome this limitation is to combine ML with ‘data augmentation’ through
242 physiological computational modelling as proposed by Hoodbhoy Z et al [69]. Lumped models of the fetal
243 circulation have demonstrated to be able to realistically simulate the hemodynamics of the fetus in many different
244 conditions [66,67,70], thus providing virtual, but physiologically plausible Doppler traces. Using these models,
245 virtual patients’ populations can be created where the ratio of abnormal/normal cases can be increased so that the
246 learning of the ML algorithms is less dependent on the data provided.

247 Finally, ML has been recently applied to improve the prenatal diagnosis of congenital heart diseases
248 (CHD). Yeo L et al. presented an intelligent navigation method called ‘FINE’ to automatically obtain different
249 echocardiography anatomical views of the fetal heart and identify abnormalities within the cardiac anatomy. The
250 tool was able to demonstrate evidence of abnormal fetal cardiac anatomy in four abnormal cases [71]. More
251 recently, Arnaout R et al. proposed the use of a fully-convolutional DL method in a supervised manner to: 1)
252 identify the 5 most important views of the fetal heart, 2) segment and measure the cardiac structures, and 3)
253 distinguish between normal and Tetralogy of Fallot and Hypoplastic Left Heart Syndrome (HLHS) using 685
254 echocardiograms from fetuses from 18 to 24 weeks of GA [72]. The best results were obtained in the diagnosis
255 of HLHS vs. normal with a sensitivity and specificity of 100% and 90%, respectively. Although the results look
256 promising, one of the main limitations of this study is that only two CHDs were evaluated, and that the DL system
257 was only trained with images from one US machine without considering the variability in echocardiographs.
258 Therefore, further studies with bigger datasets from different US machines need to be performed.

259

260 **5. Conclusions**

261 Given that ML approaches have become ubiquitous in our daily lives, they will become more and more integrated
262 in clinical practice and in the assessment of the fetal heart. It is important to distinguish the different tasks involved
263 in clinical decision making to understand how, and which type of, ML can be optimally employed. For obtaining
264 the best image quality in the shortest possible time and with the smallest learning curve; as well as for the
265 standardised extraction of specific measurements from the images, ML approaches based on Deep Learning have
266 shown great promise and are currently being implemented into the high-end clinical scanners. However, when the
267 diagnostic interpretation is performed, and especially when a treatment decision needs to be made, the ‘black-
268 box’ approach inherent to e.g. DL becomes problematic given its dependence on a large and very inclusive dataset
269 with correct clinical labels and the inherent difficulty to provide an intuitive clinical explanation for the proposed
270 decision. Here, other ML approaches, based on for example the identification of individuals with similar (complex
271 and multimodal) clinical data and imaging features, seems more promising and is explored in different centres.

272 Therefore, when carefully used and validated, and taking into account all privacy, security and auditing
273 measures relevant for the use of clinical data, ML can play an important role in standardising fetal cardiac data
274 and provide support in the clinical interpretation and suggestion of the best preventive and interventional approach
275 to optimise perinatal as well as long term cardiovascular health (Figure 3).

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279

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281 The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

282

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290

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292 Patricia Garcia-Canadilla has participated in the conception and design of the review, drafted the work, approved
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296 Fatima Crispi has participated in the design of the review, revisited it critically for important intellectual content,
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298 Bart Bijnens has participated in the conception and design of the review, drafted the work, approved the final
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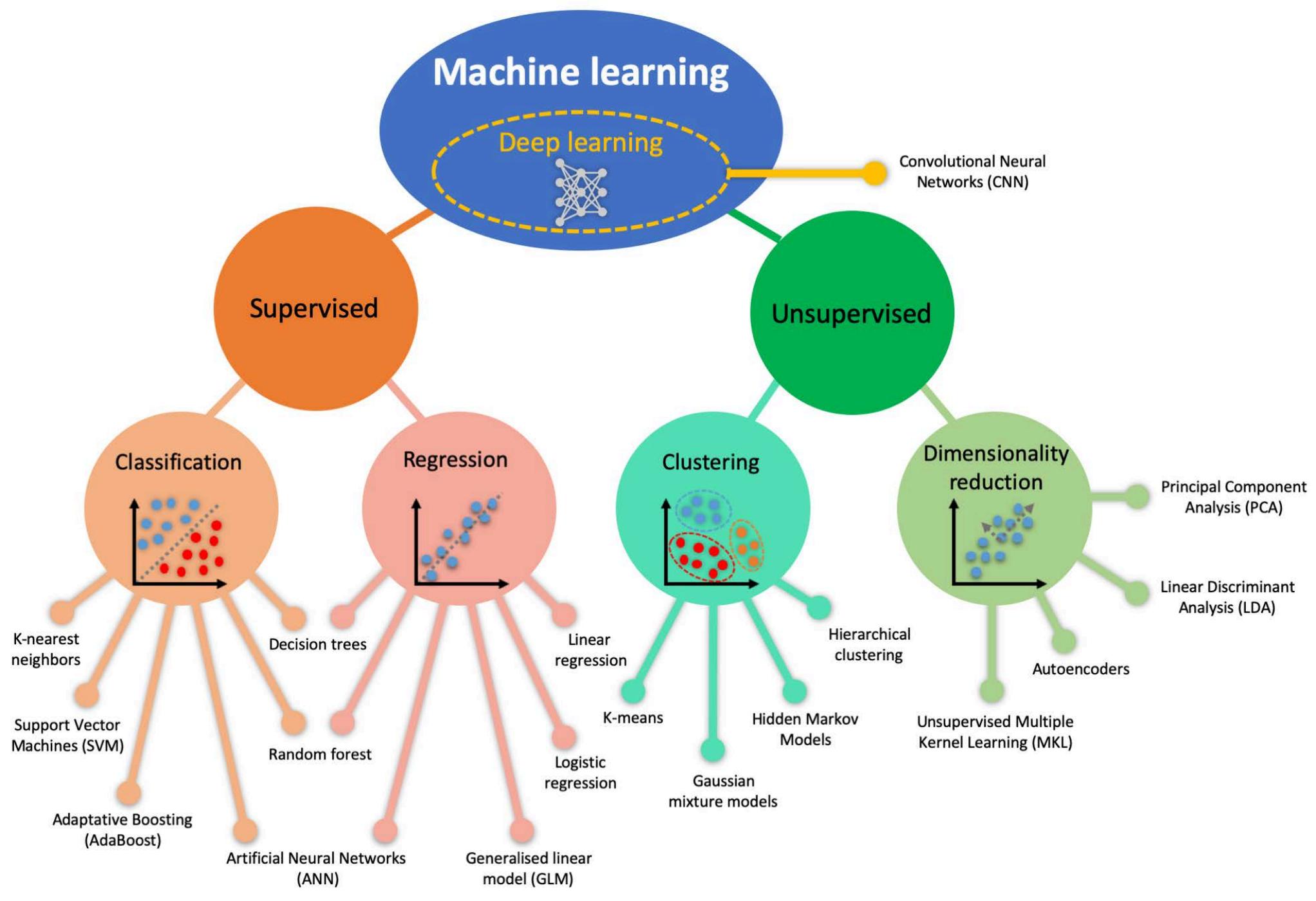
487 **9. Figure Legends**

488 **Figure 1.** Classification of machine/deep learning algorithms. Deep learning is a subset of machine learning based
489 on artificial neural networks and can be applied in a supervised or unsupervised manner.

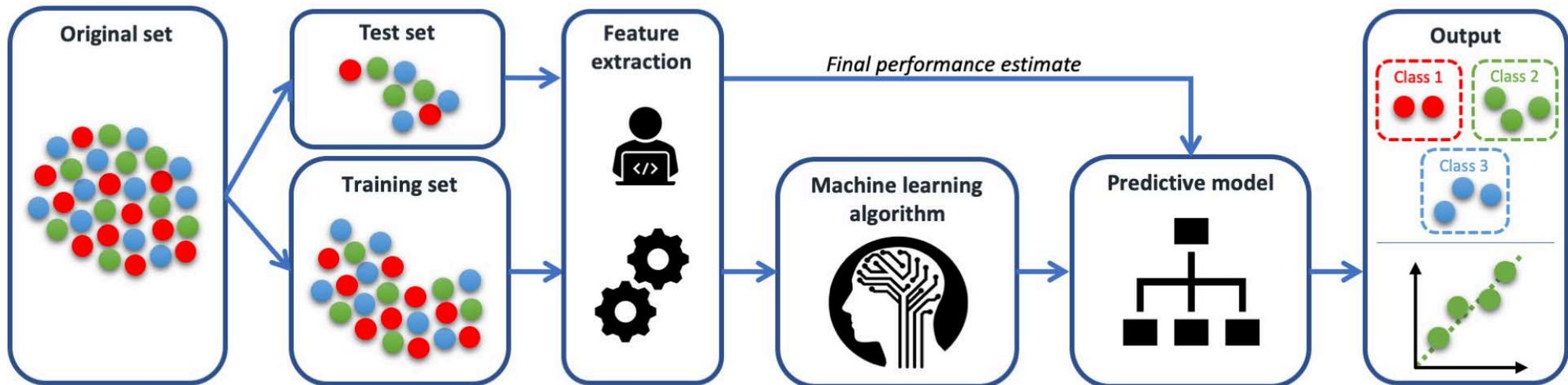
490 **Figure 2.** Pipeline of supervised (top) and unsupervised (bottom) learning applications.

491 **Figure 3.** Overview of the application of machine/deep learning in fetal cardiology. In the short term, ML will
492 help the sonographer to acquire a full set of optimal and standardised images in the shortest possible time. This
493 can improve data quality and interpretability. Next, ML will be used for the (semi-) automated extraction of
494 features (measurements) from the images, thus again improving standardisation and efficiency of the imaging
495 department. These first component, essential for the use of images in fetal cardiology, will likely benefit greatly
496 from the development in deep learning. The next step in clinical decision making is the data interpretation for
497 diagnosis and therapy planning. This component is much riskier so that interpretability and reliability of the ML
498 decision support becomes a crucial factor. Therefore, in the foreseeable future, this will stay fully in the hands of
499 the clinician but ML can provide helpful support by presenting the data in such a way that the comparison of an
500 individual patient with knowledge from patho-physiology and clinical trials/research becomes an easier task when
501 a huge amount of complex data (from anamnesis to images over lab results..) is available.

502



SUPERVISED LEARNING



UNSUPERVISED LEARNING

