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## REVIEW

# The clinical benefit and safety of current and future assisted reproductive technology


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**Abstract** Since the first birth by IVF was achieved in 1978, the techniques involved in assisted reproductive technology have grown at an enormous rate. However, new technology has rarely been robustly validated before clinical use and developing scientific understanding of the available techniques has done little to alter their use. Furthermore, there are inconsistencies in the available clinical studies and endpoints. The benefits of some technologies already established for routine use are currently dubious and there are clear ethical concerns with providing them to patients when their scientific basis is not clear. As the uptake of assisted reproductive technology increases and newer technologies continue to push the boundaries of science, it is important to consider the clinical benefits and safety of all assisted reproductive technologies. This review will discuss aspects of some of the more recent techniques, including sperm DNA-damage tests, intracytoplasmic morphologically selected sperm injection, amino acid and metabolomics profiling, preimplantation genetic screening and time-lapse imaging, and those that may have substantial impacts on the field of reproductive medicine in the future including artificial gametes, ovarian transplantation and gene therapy. 

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## Introduction

Since the first IVF birth in 1978 (Step toe and Edwards, 1978), the field of assisted reproductive technology has evolved at a rapid rate. Now, in 2012, clinics can achieve pregnancies in couples where there are no spermatozoa in the ejaculate, efficiently freeze human gametes and embryos, and

perform whole chromosome scanning of the preimplantation embryo. Despite being impressive achievements, historically, new technology has rarely been robustly validated before clinical use in humans (Harper et al., 2012). Ideally, new technology should be first evaluated in a suitable animal model, and only when safety has been

confirmed should it be applied to humans. Even then, newly introduced techniques should only be used routinely after randomized controlled trials (RCT) have confirmed that the technique is of benefit and that all safety issues have been addressed. As new technologies continue to push the boundaries of scientific knowledge, an appreciation of their clinical benefit and safety will become even more paramount.

This review begins by critically discussing some of the techniques already being used in clinical practice and to what end their use is supported by a strong scientific basis. Whether improvements in scientific understanding since their introduction have altered their clinical benefit and safety, and whether this information has been incorporated into clinical practice, is also considered. Some technologies that are beginning to be introduced or could have substantial impacts on reproductive medicine in the future will also be discussed. In an attempt to learn from previous mistakes, a particular focus will be placed on whether these developing technologies will provide a clear clinical benefit in addition to adhering to safety and ethical concerns.

## Ongoing developments: gamete and embryo selection

### Sperm DNA-damage tests

The main aim of assisted reproductive technology is to artificially achieve a pregnancy when natural conception has failed. The number of viable embryos may intuitively be improved if the most suitable gametes are involved in fertilization. Male fertility has long been assessed on conventional parameters including motility, morphology and concentration. While these parameters are important considerations, it is now understood that these alone provide only a limited diagnostic and prognostic value and an improved marker of sperm quality is desirable (Lefievre et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2009). It is intuitive that the genomic integrity of the spermatozoa is important for its cellular functions, including the ability to promote embryonic development and health after fertilization, and therefore methods to assess genomic integrity could have important clinical applications.

As early as 1980, it was reported that an appreciation of sperm DNA integrity could be a useful indicator of male fertility (Evenson et al., 1980), and an ever-increasing interest in DNA damage has followed. However, to what degree such DNA fragmentation tests are currently beneficial has now been called into question (Zini and Sigman, 2009; Barratt et al., 2010). Fundamentally, the precise nature and location of the damage detected by DNA-damage assays are, in many cases unclear, as is indeed the case for the most utilized clinical assay, the sperm chromatin structure assay (SCSA) (Aitken et al., 2009; Bungum et al., 2011). Further still, the unique packaging of sperm chromatin raises the question as to whether assay reagents are capable of accessing all areas of the genome, further complicating the correct interpretation of assay results. Several DNA-damage assays are now available for research and clinical purposes, including the SCSA (Evenson et al., 1999), sperm chromatin dispersion test (SCD) (Fernandez et al.,

2003), terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase-mediated dUDP nick-end labelling (TUNEL) (Gorczyca et al., 1993), the comet assay (Singh et al., 1989) and the sperm comet assay (Simon et al., 2010). However, the lack of validation and standardization of these numerous assays is becoming clear. While some have stated that the results from the SCSA and SCD display a high concordance, discrepancies in the absolute values of DNA fragmentation generated by these assays may lead to confusion when comparing reports using different techniques (Fernandez et al., 2005; Bala-suriya et al., 2011). Others have stated that the SCSA and TUNEL assay measure different aspects of DNA damage, and therefore each may provide information of different clinical relevance (Henkel et al., 2010). It is therefore not acceptable to regard these various assays as providing comparable information. Lastly, clearly defined thresholds to distinguish fertile from infertile men on the basis of several assays have not been developed (Simon et al., 2010), and concerns over the high intra-individual variation of results, at least with the SCSA, have been raised (Erenpreiss et al., 2006). Since the SCSA has been exposed to more scrutiny than other assays (Sakkas and Alvarez, 2010), it is possible that results from these other assays will also be complicated by individuals displaying varying levels of damage in a temporal manner. It is therefore currently inappropriate to place a large emphasis on the results of single DNA-damage assays, despite such tests often being used in such a manner.

In addition to these concerns, the clinical effect that DNA damage has on outcomes and post-natal health is currently conflicting. As some studies have reported that DNA-damage assays, in particular the SCSA, can predict the success of natural conception and intrauterine conception (Evenson and Wixon, 2006; Bungum et al., 2007), it has been suggested that DNA-damage assays could be offered to all patients prior to treatment in an effort to better decide whether more invasive techniques (IVF, intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI)) would be more appropriate. While this certainly would be beneficial, more evidence is required before such a routine use could be supported. Recent evidence has suggested that the association between sperm DNA damage and failure to achieve pregnancy during IVF or ICSI cycles is not strong enough to suggest DNA-damage assays have a broad clinical indication (Collins et al., 2008; Zini and Sigman, 2009; Barratt et al., 2010; Zini, 2011). While more robustly designed clinical studies will be needed to verify this statement, a recent paper noting that sperm DNA fragmentation had no clinical effect when good-quality oocytes were used raises the likelihood that an assessment of sperm DNA damage is not relevant in all cases (Meseguer et al., 2011b). Concern surrounding DNA damage has led to the suggestion that sperm DNA damage could be promutagenic, with the potential to cause molecular mutations leading to post-natal disease (Aitken et al., 2001). While animal models have raised concerns about the long-term health and behaviour of offspring conceived with spermatozoa containing damaged DNA (Fernández-Gonzalez et al., 2008), there is no conclusive evidence that DNA damage in spermatozoa is a significant risk to the post-natal health of humans. It should however be noted that it has been suggested that current studies have been underpowered to detect

overt phenotypic changes (Aitken et al., 2011) and the importance of continued follow up of assisted-conception children is not disputed.

Notwithstanding this point, it should be clear that the clinical utility of sperm DNA-damage tests should be limited until a better understanding of what they reveal and the importance of such information is consolidated. Rigorous work to understand the physiological parameters measured by each assay and how the results from different techniques relate to one another, in addition to standardizing and validating these assays, will be important to identify which is the most reliable and relevant to be used clinically.

### Intracytoplasmic morphologically selected sperm injection

The ability to artificially select spermatozoa is most relevant to ICSI, where all natural barriers to fertilization are bypassed. Spermatozoa are conventionally selected for ICSI on motility and morphology parameters while other characteristics, such as genomic integrity, cannot be inferred from such a crude selection method. Consequently, a superior method is deemed desirable. In recent years, developments have been made in the form of intracytoplasmic morphologically selected sperm injection (IMSI), a method which uses high-powered magnification (x6600) to allow the visualization of intracellular structures, offering a chance to better select a single spermatozoon deemed most suitable for ICSI (Bartoov et al., 2002).

In initial studies using IMSI, the mean incidence of 'normal' nuclei (defined by shape and vacuolar area) in leftover sperm fractions was retrospectively significantly associated with fertilization and pregnancy rates (Bartoov et al., 2002). Prospective studies have since been performed, comparing IMSI patients to conventional ICSI controls (Bartoov et al., 2003) (Berkovitz et al., 2006b; Antinori et al., 2008) or analysing sequential treatments (ICSI then IMSI) where patients act as their own controls (Hazout et al., 2006). While the positive effect on fertilization is lacking support, all studies have confirmed improved implantation and pregnancy rates and decreased miscarriage rates. IMSI has also been reported to increase the number of blastocysts that develop (Vanderzwalmen et al., 2008), which has far-reaching effects on multiple-birth rates and potentially preimplantation genetic screening. Similarly, IMSI has been associated with lower rates of embryonic aneuploidy (Figueira et al., 2010). The only meta-analysis of IMSI to date verifies that implantation and pregnancy rates are 3-fold higher than conventional ICSI, and that miscarriage rates are 40% lower (Setti et al., 2010). Matched IMSI groups (differing only on nucleus 'normalcy') suggest these results occur due to morphological variations, not the sperm preparations used for IMSI (Berkovitz et al., 2005); (Berkovitz et al., 2006a). Importantly, IMSI may limit the overuse of ICSI by providing a method to assess whether IVF may be achievable before resorting to ICSI (Witteimer et al., 2006).

It is postulated that poor nucleus morphology, in particular large or numerous vacuoles (as detected by IMSI), reflects abnormalities causing poor chromatin integrity. In turn, such spermatozoa are more susceptible to DNA damage and may adversely affect ICSI outcomes (Hazout et al., 2006) (Franco

et al., 2008). Consequently, selection based on fine-scale morphology improves ICSI outcomes by virtue of superior DNA integrity. Worryingly, a recent paper reported 65% spermatozoa deemed suitable for ICSI by conventional methods were subsequently deselected after high-magnification analysis (Wilding et al., 2010). How often suboptimal spermatozoa are currently used in treatment cycles, and the ramifications this may have, is a source of apprehension.

Although IMSI has thus far shown promise, the preliminary studies investigating IMSI are hindered by small sample numbers and differing study designs. These flaws complicate direct comparisons. Efficacy data are still needed to establish whether IMSI will become a routine technique or be restricted to patients with severe infertility and/or repeated ICSI failure. The expense and time-consuming nature of IMSI may well limit its clinical applicability, so concomitant research into alternative sperm selection methods is still warranted.

### Amino acid and metabolomic profiling

While methods to improve gamete selection are ongoing, embryo selection is always likely to form an integral part of assisted reproductive technology and non-invasive methods are highly sought after. Houghton et al. (2002) showed that by non-invasively analysing spent culture medium, the profiles of amino acid turnover had the potential to distinguish between embryos with the competence to develop to the blastocyst and those that would later arrest. Further confidence for the benefits of amino acid profiling was found when the turnover of asparagine, glycine and leucine was found to be significantly correlated with clinical pregnancy and live birth rates, independently of other known predictors of success (Brison et al., 2004). More recently, a positive correlation between amino acid turnover and DNA damage has been reported (Sturmey et al., 2009), as has an association between amino acid metabolism and aneuploidy (Picton et al., 2010). Together, these studies highlight the potential of non-invasive metabolomic methods to identify vast amounts of information about the health and viability of embryos *in vitro*. Of interest, it has been noted that both human and bovine embryos of different genders metabolize amino acids differently (Picton et al., 2010; Sturmey et al., 2010). Considering sex selection for social reasons is illegal in many countries, this raises the very real possibility for a need of tight regulations governing the use of non-invasive biomarkers of gender.

As an extension of amino acid profiling, 'metabolomic profiling' involves analysing all small molecules used and metabolized by the embryo (Botros et al., 2008; Seli et al., 2010a). As for amino acid profiling, it therefore represents the functional phenotype of the embryo, is entirely non-invasive and is therefore safe with regards to the embryo. Methods to create complete metabolomic profiles as opposed to analysing specific culture metabolites have been attempted since 2007, using spectroscopic techniques to identify quantitative changes in  $-SH$ ,  $-CH$ ,  $-NH$  and  $-OH$  groups (Seli et al., 2007). This initial study analysed the culture of embryos for which the clinical outcome was already known, and the spectral regions most associated with positive pregnancies were identified using a genetic algo-

rithm and developed into a 'viability index'; implanted embryos had higher indices than those who did not. Depending on the precise spectroscopic method used, sensitivity reached 86% (Seli et al., 2007). Blinded, large-scale studies have since been performed which confirm these results (Scott et al., 2008); (Vergouw et al., 2008); (Bromer et al., 2008; Seli et al., 2010b) and it would therefore seem that metabolomics could represent an exciting future for assisted reproductive technology, allowing the clinical introduction of a non-invasive selection method based on a growing scientific understanding of the nutritional and metabolic requirements of early embryos. However, all of the studies aforementioned were retrospective and unfortunately the results from the first prospective randomized trial showed that this technique has failed to produce an increase in delivery rates (Hardarson et al., 2011). This finding not only exemplifies the need for optimally designed trials to prevent the premature introduction of new techniques (Harper et al., 2012) but also highlights the importance of assessing what is deemed the most important endpoint of any assisted cycle; that is a healthy delivery. The current state of metabolomic profiling is arguably in its infancy, and it is possible that it may only prove truly useful when enough scientific data has been generated and analysed to fully understand the embryonic metabolism and how this relates to developmental and implantation potential. Only then will it be possible to interpret clinical data in a manner to substantially improve embryo selection and provide patients a clear benefit.

### Preimplantation genetic screening

The development of IVF in turn also permitted the establishment of preimplantation genetic diagnosis (PGD), a method to identify chromosomal and/or monogenic diseases in pre-implantation embryos. The most common indication for PGD is aneuploidy screening, forming 62% of all cycles during 2008 (Harper et al., 2010b). Now more specifically termed preimplantation genetic screening (PGS) (Thornhill et al., 2005), the scientific rationale behind the technique is logical. Aneuploidies are rarely compatible with embryonic development, are the most common cause of spontaneous miscarriage, and oocyte aneuploidies increase with age, contributing to a reduction in natural fertility (Simpson, 2010). Embryo morphology alone is not an adequate predictor of euploidy and, accordingly, PGS was developed to cytogenetically analyse embryos with indications being advanced maternal age, repeated IVF failure, repeated implantation failure and severe male-factor infertility. It was assumed that by transferring only euploid embryos, implantation rates in these patients would increase.

To date, 11 RCT have been performed to assess the effectiveness of PGS (Staessen et al., 2004; Stevens et al., 2004; Mastenbroek et al., 2007; Blockeel et al., 2008; Hardarson et al., 2008; Jansen et al., 2008; Mersereau et al., 2008; Staessen et al., 2008; Meyer et al., 2009; Schoolcraft et al., 2009; Debrock et al., 2010). All have performed the cytogenetic analysis using fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) and, while one has used blastocyst biopsy (Jansen et al., 2008), all others have investigated embryos biopsied at the cleavage stage. The extensive use of PGS for many years

prior to the first RCT exemplifies the lack of sound scientific investigation often present in this field. Unfortunately, on the evidence of these RCT, it is now widely reported that PGS at the cleavage stage using FISH is an unsuccessful and unjustified technique (Harper et al., 2010a). Additionally, several papers have now been published that have offered explanations as to why PGS, using FISH at the cleavage stage, does not improve pregnancy rates as expected. These include inherent technical problems with FISH but also improved scientific knowledge in the understanding that mosaicism is relatively common in cleavage-stage embryos, even from young and fertile women (Baart et al., 2005; Vanneste et al., 2009; Mastenbroek et al., 2011).

This improved scientific knowledge has done little to slow the use of PGS, and despite the evidence from multiple RCT to suggest it is incapable of improving clinical outcomes, PGS continues to be routinely used in a clinical setting. Nonetheless, such work has generated discussion about PGS and encouraged further developments and possible refinements to the technique. On the basis of improved understanding in the past few years, blastocyst biopsies and the introduction of array platforms to more comprehensively analyse the chromosomal complement have gained popularity for PGS (Harper and Harton, 2010). It is hoped that these newer methods will improve the efficiency of PGS, and certainly they do appear to overcome some of the difficulties associated with FISH and cleavage-stage biopsy. However, as should now be clear, even if scientific theory is sound, it may not translate into a clinical benefit. Regardless, these newer methods of PGS have been used clinically (Hellani et al., 2008) and therefore it is important to quickly and adequately assess these methods by further RCT to determine whether they are a suitable replacement for previously inadequate techniques.

### Time-lapse embryo morphology scoring

In cases where no genetic analyses are performed, embryos are selected for transfer largely based on morphological criteria. A number of morphological scoring systems have been proposed with the aim of identifying embryos with the highest developmental and implantation potential, thereby improving success rates and enabling a means to reduce multiple pregnancies (Alpha Scientists in Reproductive Medicine and ESHRE Special Interest Group of Embryology, 2011). Historically, these systems have been based on the visualization of embryos at static time points. Such a technique is hindered by the need for interruptions of the controlled incubation conditions to permit visualization by microscopy and the risk of completely missing important developmental events. Conversely, time-lapse image acquisition can be performed by integrating a monitoring system with the incubation wells, thereby minimizing incubation disruptions and providing a means to capture substantially more information. The possible benefits of time-lapse imaging as a method to strengthen current morphological selection methods have recently been reported in an encouraging study by Wong et al. (2010) who state that progression to the blastocyst stage can be predicted by day 2 by measuring just three parameters; the duration of the first cytokinesis, the time interval between the end of the first mitosis and the start



of the second and the time interval between the second and third mitoses. Importantly, the technique is non-invasive and was reported to have a sensitivity and specificity of >93% (Wong et al., 2010) and therefore holds clear clinical promise. Indeed, the first pregnancy successfully delivered after selection of a blastocyst from the information provided by time-lapse images was reported in 2010 (Pribenszky et al., 2010). Yet, although this suggests the technique is safe for the embryo, such a conclusion is far from being guaranteed and a single case report is certainly insufficient to suggest a clinical benefit of the technique. Although technically a non-invasive method, exposure to light (as needed to obtain periodical digital images) is an unnatural stressor for the embryo and is known to adversely affect animal embryo development (Oh et al., 2007; Ottosen et al., 2007). The first paper to assess the safety of time-lapse scoring has reported that the level and duration of light exposure needed for time-lapse image capturing does not adversely affect fertilization, embryo quality or cleavage rate (Nakahara et al., 2010). Another paper published this year has also reported no adverse effects on embryo development and viability, but also found no significant improvements in ongoing pregnancy rates (Cruz et al., 2011). A recent retrospective study (Meseguer et al., 2011a) has again highlighted the possible benefits of this technique, but the results of the randomized prospective study are awaited to better understand its full potential. Although the potential benefits of time-lapse imaging are clear and current data promising, on balance there is still a paucity of efficiency and safety data into this technique. Large-scale, multicentre trials are needed to ensure the accuracy and benefit of this method, and such studies will need to be extensively designed to overcome several confounding factors including uterine receptivity that can affect implantation rates. Despite this, one great use of this technology that is being realized is its ability to offer novel embryological data that enables the timing of developmental stages to be reassessed.

### Areas of active research

So far this review has focused on some techniques that have recently been brought into the IVF laboratory with a variety of success. While these have predominately been concerned with the ability to improve pregnancy rates by better selecting gametes and/or embryos, there is also active research into altogether more ambitious techniques. These techniques push the boundaries of scientific knowledge, and it is therefore important to learn from mistakes with other techniques and to question not only if they are safe, but what one can hope to achieve if they become clinically available.

### Overcoming a complete lack of gametes without donation

There will always be patients for whom standard techniques do not work. Cancer survival rates are increasing, and social acceptance of older parents and same-sex couples is growing. It is not unreasonable to consider an increasing cohort of patients in the near future who are infertile because they completely lack the appropriate gametes. For these patients, the

ability to generate gametes from alternative cell populations would remove the need for gamete donation or adoption.

Germ cell differentiation from embryonic stem cells (ESC) has been established in murine models (Toyooka et al., 2003) (Geijsen et al., 2003) (Hubner et al., 2003) (Nayernia et al., 2006). As patients desire gametes containing their own genome, if neo-gametogenesis from ESC is to be used clinically, somatic cell nuclear transplantation (SCNT) into an enucleated oocyte would also be necessary in order to develop the necessary ESC. These could then be differentiated into gametes (of either sex if male somatic cells are used (Kerkis et al., 2007) and used for IVF. These so called 'artificial gametes' could be created for women past the menopause and to allow same-sex couples to reproduce. There is evidence that human ESC can also be differentiated into gametes (Clark et al., 2004) (Aflatoonian et al., 2005).

Gamete development from ESC is a prime example of a technique for which not only the outcome but also the means to achieve it must be considered. Methods to maintain ESC and induce differentiation remain poorly understood, while effectiveness, safety and tolerance would need to be rigorously tested before clinical use. Nonetheless, it is likely that ethical (and religious) restraints will limit this avenue of research.

Induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSC) are adult-somatic cells which have been reprogrammed to behave like ESC, therefore overcoming the concern of creating embryos purely for therapeutic reasons. Human iPSC have been created (Takahashi et al., 2007; Yu et al., 2007) and subsequently used to develop germ-line precursors (Park et al., 2009). They may therefore seem more desirable than ESC but currently iPSC display abnormal regulatory pathways and aberrant imprinting patterns. It should be remembered that the ultimate end goal from any intervention, including the use of artificial gametes, is not simply a pregnancy but the delivery of a child whose short- and long-term health is normal. Ongoing research is indisputably needed and this absolutely warrants rigorous animal trials involving long-term follow ups. Yet ethical concerns remain. Ironically iPSC differentiate most readily if co-cultured with fetal cells (Park et al., 2009), and the ability to permit reproduction to same-sex couples or older patients is unsettling for some. No forms of in vitro derived gametes are currently allowed for treatment in the UK.

Stem cell research in general will give unprecedented insight in developmental regulation and disease pathology and provide a platform on which to test drugs. Yet it is vital not to vastly overestimate the benefits of these cells. While patients undergoing infertility treatment may provide the embryos to allow such scientific research, a reciprocal benefit from stem cells is unlikely to have clinical implications in the near future. Scientific limitations, ethical considerations, safety fears and political/funding barriers will undoubtedly hinder this line of research.

### Restoring fertility

Current techniques do not 'cure' infertility, they just overcome it. Artificial gametes would similarly require some degree of assisted fertilization. The most appropriate focus of future research may be to restore fertility.

Gonadal transplantation after cryopreservation is being investigated for cancer survivors (Ginsberg et al., 2009; Moffat et al., 2009). In order to restore fertility, orthotopic autografts would be necessary. Live births have been reported following orthotopic ovarian transplantation, from both spontaneous (Donnez et al., 2004; Demeestere et al., 2007) and IVF-assisted pregnancies (Meirow et al., 2005) (Andersen et al., 2008). However, there is confusion over whether these fertilized oocytes were a result of the transplant or survived chemotherapy/radiation. The ischaemic insult suffered by ovarian tissue after transplantation (during revascularization) dramatically reduces the follicle reserve, making fertility restoration transient. Whole ovarian transplantation, including the vascular supply, may become an option to overcome this but concerns over reintroducing cancer cells and the need for numerous operations are obvious. Heterotopic transplantation or in vitro maturation of gametes may be more sensible options, but again require assisted reproductive technology so do not restore fertility.

Gene therapy may also be valuable for fertility restoration. The genes identified to be involved in fertility are increasing quickly (Matzuk and Lamb, 2008) and may be propagated by ICSI. Gene therapy directed to Sertoli cells has improved fertility in mice (Kanatsu-Shinohara et al., 2002) (Kojima et al., 2003) as has spermatogonial stem cell transgenesis, albeit to a lesser extent (Takehashi et al., 2007). Gene therapy directed at embryos would allow infertility prevention. However, this avenue has yielded less success in animal models as mortality rates are unacceptably high at 80–90% (Navarro et al., 2008).

Currently, gene therapy is technically difficult, time-consuming, expensive and inefficient. However, if these caveats can be overcome, gene therapy may offer a suitable treatment for many infertile patients. When used to correct somatic cell abnormalities, gene therapy offers only a localized treatment, but the transgenesis of gametes or embryos may be less acceptable. The in vitro development of 'transgenic' humans is likely to put many people at unease, especially if viral vectors are used. Gene therapy may also lead to a 'slippery-slope' situation whereby desirable genes are modified, leading to truly designer babies. All scientific research should be conducted responsibly, offering clearly defined clinical benefits. Just because scientific knowledge allows a procedure does not imply it is necessary or reasonable to do so, and appropriate regulation will be necessary to limit the ethical dilemmas arising from developing scientific abilities.

## Conclusion

This review has attempted to address the current state of several assisted reproductive technology interventions, with a particular focus on the clinical benefit provided to patients in addition to their safety. Not all established or developing techniques have been discussed as they are beyond the scope of this review, but the considerations raised will none the less be relevant for other technologies such as in vitro maturation, artificial oocyte activation, sperm selection by hyaluronic acid-binding assays and pronuclear transfer for overcoming mitochondrial disease.

As basic scientific knowledge increases, it should be translated to clinical care. While this will undoubtedly be reflected in additional technologies being introduced, such knowledge should also be used to reassess the interventions already established. It is now clear that PGS using cleavage-stage biopsy and FISH fails to offer patients a true clinical advantage. Similarly, it should be realized where basic science has been lacking from the start and how this could impact on the clinical utility of a technique. This is evident in techniques such as DNA-damage assays, which although may hold promise for improving practices, are currently surrounded with uncertainties.

Although the same could be said for all areas of medicine, assisted reproductive technology in particular has developed a very strong commercial backing. It is therefore particularly important to ensure that all new technologies are adequately and rigorously tested for both safety and efficiency, ideally before being used clinically. While not all of the techniques discussed here are routinely offered, many are reserved for use in patients with repeated IVF failure. The use of largely experimental techniques particularly in a vulnerable cohort of patients further highlights the need for the risks and benefits to be fully investigated.

In cases where pre-clinical studies may not be possible, RCT need to have proved efficiency and safety before the technique is routinely offered to patients. A clear hindrance to many areas of assisted reproduction research is an inability to compare and contrast papers professing to discuss the same topic. The recently published Istanbul consensus document on embryo assessment has called for the development of consistent and defined embryo morphology endpoints to enable both inter-clinic comparisons and to provide a clinical endpoint to which new techniques can be directly compared, much like how new pharmaceuticals must be compared with a current gold standard before approval (Alpha Scientists in Reproductive Medicine and ESHRE Special Interest Group of Embryology, 2011). If other areas of assisted reproduction or study design could be standardized in a similar way, this might make it possible to assess new technologies more coherently and efficiently. If future studies fail to show that a technique has a benefit (either at all or relative to an already accepted alternative) then it is in the name of best practice to ensure that the technology does not become established as an integral part of practice. Safety research is also an absolute necessity, especially as more people are likely to use assisted reproduction in the future (Harper et al., 2012) and safety studies should be conducted in a similar manner.

There is a strong and necessary relationship between basic science and clinical practice and it is important that both develop at a similar rate. In this respect, it is important to continuously ask what one is trying to achieve with the introduction of new technologies. The developing techniques discussed here, including artificial gametes, reflect just how advanced scientific understanding and ability has become since the introduction of IVF just over 30 years ago. However, such research needs to be sensibly performed with a clinical application in mind, including whether it will provide patients with a benefit beyond what is already available and whether it is safe. A final consideration is that safety in the context of assisted reproductive technology includes not only the short- and long-term physiological

aspects (to embryos and patients) but also the psychological and ethical concerns that are so evident in this field.

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