

For reprint orders, please contact:  
reprints@expert-reviews.com

EXPERT  
REVIEWS

# Embryo cryopreservation: is vitrification ready to replace slow freezing?

*Expert Rev. Obstet. Gynecol.* 3(4), 455–463 (2008)

Mohamed Youssry,  
Yasser Orief,  
Vassilis Palapelas and  
Safaa Al-Hasani<sup>†</sup>

<sup>†</sup>Author for correspondence  
University of Luebeck,  
Department of Obstetrics and  
Gynecology, Ratzeburger  
Allee 160, 23560,  
Luebeck, Germany  
Tel.: +49 451 500 2155  
Fax: +49 451 500 4764  
sf\_alhasani@hotmail.com

Cryopreservation of human gametes, embryos and blastocysts has become an integral part of assisted reproduction. This approach may have several advantages for infertile patients. It provides an opportunity to limit the numbers of embryos transferred while supernumerary embryos will be used in subsequent treatment cycles, thereby increasing the cumulative pregnancy rate. Furthermore, the potential risk of hyperstimulation syndrome can be reduced. In addition, storage of embryos from a cycle allows the patient to space the timing of sibling pregnancies and improve their potential of achieving a pregnancy at an advanced maternal age. Therefore, a reliable procedure for the cryopreservation of supernumerary embryos is needed. Since the early 1980s, two common techniques have been used in cryopreservation: the conventional slow cooling method and the more recent rapid procedure, known as vitrification. The latter needs a much higher concentration of cryoprotectants and faster cooling rates. Vitrification is qualified to be the future of cryopreservation procedure owing to increased survival and success rates over the last years. The aim of this review is to assess the outcomes of different methods of cryopreservation performed on human embryos and to evaluate whether vitrification nowadays is ready to replace slow freezing.

**KEYWORDS:** cryopreservation • cryoprotectant • embryo • slow cooling • vitrification

The first human embryos were frozen in the late 1970s with the first pregnancy reported in 1983 in Australia by Trounson and Mohr [1], with multicellular embryos that had been slow-cooled using dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO), the first successful pregnancy resulting in a delivery was reported in 1984 by Zeilmaker *et al.* [2]. Since then, simplifications and improvements in slow-freezing protocols have resulted in a wide application of the method for human embryos at early-cleavage stages, as well as for blastocysts.

On the other hand, successful vitrification of mammalian embryos was first reported by Rall and Fahy in 1985 [3]. Since then, a number of cryoprotectant solutions have been investigated for human use, including the use of DMSO, glycerol, ethylene glycol, propanediol and sugars in various combinations [4,5]. In addition, numerous carrier systems have been tried, including electron microscope grids, open-pulled straws, denuding pipettes, open hemistraws and cryoloops [6–10].

In cryopreservation, either by the traditional slow-cooling method (equilibrium cooling) or the more recent rapid procedure of vitrification (nonequilibrium cooling), subzero temperatures and the conditions those human gametes and embryos encountered during cryopreservation are not physiologic situations [11].

The characteristics of cryopreservation methods, such as the exposure time of cells to different cryoprotectant solutions and to their different concentrations, have critical roles in the survival and viability of embryos. The rate of formation of intracellular ice crystals and requirements of different development stages of cells are also heavily involved in the outcome of cryopreservation [11,12].

One of the most significant aspects regarding the success of cryopreservation is post-thaw embryo survival due to ice crystal formation during the freezing and thawing processes, which may damage cell membranes and lead to blastomere lysis [13]. Although successful pregnancies can be achieved following transfer of

embryos with less than 50% of the blastomeres intact post-thaw, pregnancy rates are higher when all blastomeres survive. Indeed, if embryos survive the freeze–thaw process with all the blastomere intact, then the pregnancy rate is comparable with that of fresh IVF cycles. However, overall cryopreservation leads to a 30–40% reduction in the implantation potential [14].

There is much debate as to the developmental stage at which human embryos are best cryopreserved [15,16]. The disadvantage of two-pronucleate stage embryos is that nothing is known regarding their developmental competence. A major complication of cleavage-stage embryos on the other hand is that, after thawing, damaged blastomeres often coexist with intact ones and it has been demonstrated convincingly that the implantation potential of such embryos is much lower than that of fully intact ones [14].

Selection of fresh embryos for transfer on the basis of observations, such as growth rate, morphology and early cleavage, can enhance the outcome of embryo transfer, but usually relies on multiple embryos from which the ‘best’ can be selected. Similarly, selection on the basis of survival and resumption of mitosis can enhance the outcome from cryopreserved embryo transfer [17]. Clinical success with cryopreservation depends on many factors, including patient age and stimulation protocol, quality of embryos selected for freezing, developmental stage at freezing, media formulation (including type of cryoprotectants used) and parameters of cooling and warming.

Vitrification has improved viability and survival rates of cells owing to the prevention of intracellular ice crystallization [18]. Nevertheless, this procedure requires much higher concentrations of cryoprotectants that may also cause possible toxic and osmotic effects when compared with slow freezing. More recently, it has been addressed as the future of cryopreservation of human gametes and embryos due to the highest survival and pregnancy rates [19].

One of the central issues is whether slow- or rapid-cooling protocols that have been employed in human IVF programs satisfy the fundamental principle of minimizing damage during cryostorage. Therefore, it is essential to establish a simple and reliable procedure to optimize human embryos cryopreservation, a prerequisite of which is to develop a better understanding of factors that influence their survival and implantation potential in order to have the utmost clinical outcome.

### Is vitrification more favorable than slow cooling?

In slow cooling, embryos are usually pre-equilibrated at room temperature. The concentration of cryoprotectants is then gradually increased inside and outside the embryos during several steps over a 2-h period. When the concentration of cryoprotectant was high enough to support glass-like solidification of the cells and the outside solution, at temperatures approaching  $-33^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$ , the cells could then be rapidly exposed to much lower temperatures such as  $-150^{\circ}\text{C}$  or lower. Today, we can call the Rall and Fahy studies a bridge between vitrification and slow cooling. Using improved vitrification solutions and

technology, human oocytes and embryos can be pre-equilibrated and introduced into vitrification solutions at room temperatures or even at physiological temperatures [20].

Kuleshova and Lopata highlighted the advantages and disadvantages of slow freezing compared with vitrification [21]. They asserted that there is no proper control of solute penetration or control of dehydration rate in slow freezing. In addition, vitrification only needs 10 min, which is nearly ten-times less than slow freezing. Furthermore, they also reported that slow cooling is a rather expensive method compared with vitrification regarding the running cost and equipment.

On the other hand, we must consider that, in vitrification, a skilled embryologist is required and only few embryos can be worked with at a time because of the need to move quickly through solutions. Therefore, a technician will have to be occupied solely with freezing until all embryos are placed in liquid nitrogen for storage, while slow freezing does not require direct attention by an embryologist.

Kuwayama *et al.* stated that the primary disadvantages to slow cooling for human embryo cryopreservation are the requirement for an expensive programmable freezing machine and the time-consuming procedure [18]. The introduction of a technique that could be performed without the use of costly equipment and could be completed by one cryopreservation specialist within minutes would provide significant benefits for any busy IVF program. Vitrification of embryos and oocytes may offer a solution to this problem. The authors also stated that the considerable advantages of vitrification include elimination of ice crystal formation, which may increase their chances for survival, it is a simple technique involving direct plunging into liquid nitrogen and the time required for equilibration and cooling is considerably reduced. On the other hand, disadvantages of vitrification are the required high cryoprotectant concentration and, consequently, the increased risk of toxic and osmotic damage, and the need to use special tools permitting high cooling rate by reducing radically the volume of solutions containing the embryos.

### Impact of human embryo cryopreservation on clinical outcome of assisted reproduction

Embryos have been successfully cryopreserved at zygote, cleavage and blastocyst stages, using various freezing protocols with either DMSO, 1,2-propanediol or glycerol as cryoprotective agents.

#### Human zygote & cleavage embryos

Using the slow-freezing method, day 2 or 3 embryos were cryopreserved with DMSO with a 53% survival rate, an overall pregnancy rate of 21.8% per transfer and 12.9% clinical pregnancy rate [22]. Another group that had used propandiol concluded that pronuclear-stage (PN) oocytes resulting from intracytoplasmic sperm injection can be successively frozen–thawed. The pregnancy rates (17%) achieved were comparable with those for zygotes obtained after IVF (20%) [23]. Furthermore, it

was observed that PN embryos resulting from intracytoplasmic sperm injection could be cryopreserved successfully and thawed, with a clinical pregnancy rate (14%) comparable with conventional IVF (17.4%) [24].

Moreover, many IVF teams performing cryopreservation report clinical pregnancy rates of 20–30% per transfer of frozen–thawed cleaved embryos [25,26]. In a recent study carried out by Schroder *et al.* using the slow-freezing method for cryopreservation of human zygotes, a 10.2% pregnancy rate per embryo transfer was reported [27].

The effectiveness of zygote and cleavage-stage embryo cryopreservation in terms of embryo survival has been the subject of several studies. However, few studies have directly compared the results of different freezing strategies utilizing either zygote or cleavage-stage embryo cryopreservation, and these studies have yielded highly controversial results, either similar results for zygotes (74.4%) and day 2 embryos (77.4%) [28] or better results for day 2 embryos (73.9%) than for zygotes (64.4%) [29].

A retrospective study, conducted by Salumets *et al.*, was devised to evaluate the impact of developmental stage of embryos on the pregnancy outcome of frozen embryo transfer [30]. A total of 4006 embryos were analyzed, the highest survival rate was observed for zygotes (86.5%), followed by day 2 (61.7%) and day 3 (43.1%) embryos, with overall clinical pregnancy and implantation rates of 20.7 and 14.2%, respectively. There were no significant differences in clinical pregnancy, implantation, delivery and birth rates between frozen zygote, day 2 and 3 embryo transfers. The findings of this study support the conclusions of a group that reported a better survival rate for zygotes (80.4%) than for day 2 embryos (71.8%) [31].

On the other hand, interest in vitrification was reported for the first time as an efficient method in mouse embryo cryopreservation [3]. Afterwards, successful vitrification of human four- to eight-cell embryos was documented [32]. Thereafter, vitrification of human embryos, especially at early stages, increased due to reported comparable clinical and laboratory outcomes [8,18,33,34].

However, the majority of studies on vitrification of human embryos reported high survival rates (>85%) and pregnancy rates of approximately 22–30%, which were completely in acceptable ranges and much higher than the rates of slow freezing [8,18,34,35]. Recently, after 3 years experience Al-Hasani *et al.* reported that 849 PN zygotes were vitrified, 339 PN zygotes were thawed resulting in an 89% survival rate [36]. The mean number of embryos per transfer was 2.2. The pregnancy rate obtained was three-times higher (36.9%) than that obtained with the slow-rate freezing method (10.2%) used previously in the same centre.

El-Danasouri and Selman reported that survival rates following vitrification are positively correlated with the number of blastomeres in the cleavage-stage embryos [33]. In addition, higher pregnancy and slightly higher survival rates were commonly attributed to the further stages of human embryos, such as eight cells [37] and blastocyst stage [38]. More notable is the

observation that vitrification either at blastocyst stage or at cleavage and PN stage, along with subsequent embryo transfer either at day 3 or 5, was shown to result in almost similar pregnancy rates as fresh cycles [18,39,40]. Furthermore, the rate of blastocyst formation after vitrification, either at PN or cleavage stage, was similar to fresh cycles and commonly above 40–50%. These findings suggest the advantage of early-stage vitrification based on the similar survival rates of vitrification at different stages and high blastulation rates, comparable to fresh cycles.

Another concern regarding vitrification is the risk of exposure of embryos and gametes to contaminants through direct contact with liquid nitrogen. To tackle this concern, different and numerous types of cryocarrier and vessels have been described in the literature, eliminating potential contamination by isolating cells [18,41]. While no studies have demonstrated unintentional uptake by a human or mammalian embryo of any pathogen during vitrification or storage, under experimental conditions such contamination may occur. To date, the largest reported survey is for the Cryotop method [18].

Comparing slow freezing versus vitrification, Kuwayama *et al.* published that 100% of vitrified human PN embryos survived and 52% developed to blastocysts compared with 89% survival and 41% blastocyst development after slow cooling [18]. Similar survival rates were seen with vitrification of four-cell embryos (98%) compared with slow cooling (91%). They stated that vitrification is a simple, efficient and cost-effective way to improve cumulative pregnancy rates per cycle (TABLE 1).

Raju *et al.* reported a post-thaw survival rate of vitrified human day 3 embryos of 95.3%, which was significantly higher than that of the conventional slow-freezing protocol (60.0%) [37]. The implantation and pregnancy rates were also higher (14.9 and 35.0%) than that in the slow-freezing protocol (4.2 and 17.4%). On average, three embryos were transferred per patient. Of the 40 transfer cycles, five deliveries and nine ongoing pregnancies were achieved. Four ended with delivery of a singleton and one in a miscarriage.

Ultimately, human embryos at two-PN and cleavage stage can be successfully cryopreserved by the use of vitrification, providing high survival rates and improved outcomes. It is a rapid and simple technique that favors the biological integrity of human embryos.

### **Blastocyst stage embryos**

Recent advances in culture systems with sequential media have made it possible to develop human IVF embryos into blastocysts quite easily. In particular, prolonged culture of embryos to day 5 gives the chance of much detailed assessment of the embryonic development parameters [42]. Blastocysts are preimplantation embryos that have successfully passed the critical step of genomic activation and therefore have a high developmental potential [43].

One group cryopreserved human blastocysts, which were developed in a co-culture system using the slow-freezing method, and obtained reasonable clinical results. Ménézo *et al.* published a 21% pregnancy rate per transfer (15 ongoing) of

**Table 1. Outcome of recent studies on vitrification of human zygote and early-stage embryos.**

Study	Embryo stage	Cryoprotectants	Cryocarrier	Vitrified embryos (n)	SR (%)	PR (%)	Notes	Ref.
Al-Hasani <i>et al.</i> (2007)	Zygote	EG/DMSO/S	Cryotop	339	89	36.8	Abortion rate: 17.42%	[36]
Kuwayama <i>et al.</i> (2005)	PN stage	EG/DMSO	Cryotip	1300	100	27	Delivery rate: 48–51%	[18]
	Cleavage stage		Cryotop		98			
					90			
Zhu <i>et al.</i> (2005)	Embryos	EG-based	Open-pulled straws	957	72.2	19–22		[59]
Rama Raju <i>et al.</i> (2005)	Embryos (8 cells)	EG-based	Open-pulled straws	40	95	35		[37]
Hredzak <i>et al.</i> (2005)	Cleavage stage	EG/S	100 µl pipetting tip	215	69	27		[35]
Isachenko <i>et al.</i> (2003)	PN stage	EG-based	Open-pulled straws	59	71			[60]
Liebermann <i>et al.</i> (2002)	Embryos (8 cells)	EG-based	Flexipet denuding pipette	266	83.8			[35]

DMSO: Dimethylsulphoxide; EG: Ethylene glycol; PN: Pronuclear stage; PR: Pregnancy rate; S: Sucrose; SR: Survival rate.

101 transfers (106 thawing) [11]. In a retrospective study by Kaufman *et al.*, 1239 blastocysts were thawed, they reported an 83% survival rate, 13.4% implantation rate, 21.7% pregnancy per transfer with a 19% ongoing pregnancy rate [44]. In addition, there was a higher pregnancy rate in the programmed cycle (26.2%) compared with the natural cycle (13%). Other studies conducted by Martin *et al.* and Anderson *et al.* support the previous results [45,46]. Overall, these studies obtained reasonable results (TABLE 2).

However, results of slow freezing of human blastocysts reported by other authors have been inconsistent; Troup *et al.* reported that at the expanded blastocyst stage, only 38% of embryos survived when frozen–thawed [47]. No pregnancies were achieved. Therefore, the results of slow freezing of blastocysts are contradictory and not satisfactory for the ambitious goals of this issue toward the advancement of assisted reproductive technology.

Many human pregnancies that originate from an ultrarapid vitrification technique are achieved after cryopreservation of blastocysts using the cryoloop, the cryotop, the electron microscope grids or the straws. In the study by Mukaida *et al.*, human blastocysts were successfully vitrified and the survival rate after warming was 63% [48]. Six clinical pregnancies were achieved after 19 transfers. One healthy baby was born, four pregnancies were ongoing and one ended in miscarriage. This report documented the first successful pregnancy and delivery achieved by blastocyst vitrification using the cryoloop containerless technique.

Subsequent to the improved practice of combined use of various cryoprotectants as well as the use of different cryocarriers, the clinical outcomes of vitrification were improving, evidenced

by a high survival rate of up to 100% and pregnancy rate up to 53%, as reported by several authors using cryoloop, electron microscopic grids or open-pulled straws [9,39,49,50–53].

Furthermore, several studies have been conducted to compare cryopreservation of day 5 and day 6 blastocysts with regard to survival, implantation and pregnancy rates. Two of these studies indicate that day 5 blastocysts have a higher survival rate [9], as well as pregnancy and implantation rates compared with day 6 blastocysts [38].

Blastocysts and further stages of human embryos have different physiological requirements than early-stage embryos, which affect the survival chance after unphysiological situations such as ultrarapid freezing. A major factor that affects the survival rate of blastocysts is the fluid-filled cavity called the blastocoel. Vanderzwalmen *et al.* analyzed the effectiveness of reducing the volume of the blastocoelic cavity before vitrification (i.e., induced collapse of the blastocoel) [6]. Initially, they encountered low survival rates of blastocyst after vitrification (20.3% with blastocysts or expanded blastocysts, 54.5% with morulae and 58.5% with early blastocysts). However, they were able to overcome this by reducing the blastocoelic cavity and puncturing it with a special pipette before the procedure. Thereafter, an increase in the survival rate of up to 70.6% was noted. The pregnancy rates were improved after the artificial shrinkage procedure (20.5%) compared with the control intact blastocyst group (4.5%; not significant). After reduction of the blastocoelic cavity, a significant increase in the implantation rate per vitrified blastocyst was observed. They also concluded that survival rates in cryopreserved expanded blastocysts could be improved by reducing the fluid content. This was presumably because mechanical damage caused by ice crystal formation was avoided (TABLE 2).

In another study conducted by Son *et al.*, artificial shrinkage was induced in expanded blastocysts using a needle [54]. Of 90 expanded blastocysts vitrified, 81 survived (90.0%) and 40 of them were hatched (49.4%) at the time of transfer. The implantation rate was 29.0% (20 of 69) and the pregnancy rate was 48.0% (12 of 25). Nine patients delivered 15 infants, two ongoing pregnancies and one ended in miscarriage. The results suggest that artificial shrinkage is a useful technique for vitrification of expanded blastocysts. Furthermore, the survival rate of expanded blastocysts after vitrification increases when – to reduce ice crystal formation – the blastocoele is artificially shrunk with a glass microneedle [6] or the use of pipetting [55].

However, two retrospective studies were undertaken to compare a slow-freezing protocol with a vitrification protocol for cryopreservation of day 5 and 6 human blastocysts. In the first, published by Stehlik *et al.*, 71 day-5 slow-frozen blastocysts were thawed and 59 embryos survived the thawing (83.1%) [40]. An average of 2.5 slow-frozen blastocysts was replaced per embryo transfer, resulting in a pregnancy rate of 16.7% (4 of 24). On the other hand, 41 vitrified blastocysts were thawed and all 41 survived the thawing process (100%). An average of 2.0 vitrified blastocysts were replaced per embryo transfer, resulting in a pregnancy rate of 50% (10 of 20). Survival, implantation and pregnancy rates of day 5 vitrified blastocysts are significantly higher compared with day 5 slow-frozen blastocysts. A similar trend was observed with day 6 blastocysts (TABLE 2).

Another study was undertaken by Lieberman and Tucker [38], who documented that in 254 vitrified transfer cycles, survival, embryonic implantation and clinical pregnancy rates for day 5 blastocysts were 95.9, 33.4 and 48.7%, respectively, and for day 6 blastocysts 97.5, 25.9 and 42.8%. In 254 slow-frozen transfer cycles, survival, embryonic implantation, and clinical pregnancy rates for day 5 blastocysts were 91.4, 29.6 and 42.8%, respectively, and for day 6 blastocysts 94.8, 28.2 and 43.1%. Overall there was a slightly, but not significantly, higher outcome regarding implantation and clinical pregnancy with the use of day 5 blastocysts (31.3 and 45.4%, respectively) versus day 6 blastocysts (26.7 and 42.9%, respectively). They concluded that the vitrification technique yields the same implantation and pregnancy rate as slow-frozen blastocyst transfers. Slow growing, in addition to embryos, can be cryopreserved on day 6, because they yield satisfactory survival, implantation and pregnancy rates (TABLE 2).

Furthermore, the strongest data came from a large study by Kuwayama *et al.* [18]. In this study, the survival and development of human embryos were compared following slow cooling versus vitrification involving more than 6000 blastocysts. In this study, 5695 out of 6328 (90%) vitrified blastocysts survived and resulted in 53% (2516 out of 4745) pregnancy rate following transfer, as compared with 84% (131 out of 156) survival and 51% (50 out of 98) pregnancy rates following slow cooling. They stated that vitrification is a simple, efficient and cost-effective way to improve cumulative pregnancy rates per cycle.

**Table 2. Outcome of recent studies on the vitrification of human blastocysts.**

Study	Cryoprotectant	CryocARRIER	Vitrified embryos (n)	SR (%)	PR (%)	IR (%) or special notes	Ref.
Liebermann and Tucker (2006)	EG	Cryotop	254	D5: 95.9 D6: 97.5	48.7 42.8	33 25	[38]
Utsunomiya <i>et al.</i> (2006)		Straw	142 cycles	Protocol 1: 87 Protocol 2: 89.6 Protocol 3: 89.8	Protocol 1: 35.0 Protocol 2: 32.0 Protocol 3: 11.1	Protocol 1: 25.9 Protocol 2: 22.8 Protocol 3: 9.4	[58]
Zech <i>et al.</i> (2005)	DMSO/EG	Hemistraw	177	64–82	21–35	SR increases with intact ZP	[57]
Takahashi K <i>et al.</i> (2005)	DMSO/EG/S	Cryoloop	1129	85.7	44	Congenital defects 1.4%	[50]
Huang CC <i>et al.</i> (2005)	DMSO/S/EG/HSA	Cryoloop	249	77.1	53.8		[39]
Stehlik <i>et al.</i> (2005)	EG-based	Cryotop	41	100	50		[40]
Hiraoka <i>et al.</i> (2004)	DMSO/EG	Cryotop	49	98	50	33	[55]
Vanderzwalmen <i>et al.</i> (2003)	DMSO/EG	Hemistraw	281	60	27 (ongoing)	AH more favorable implantation rate	[7]
Mukaida <i>et al.</i> (2003)	EG-based	Cryoloop	444	79	36		[61]
Mukaida <i>et al.</i> (2003)	EG-based	Cryoloop	725	80.4	37	Day 5 survival rate is higher (87%)	[9]

AH: Assisted hatching; DMSO: Dimethylsulphoxide; EG: Ethylene glycol; IR: Implantation rate; PR: Pregnancy rate; S: Sucrose; SR: Survival rate; ZP: Zona pellucida.

As mentioned in vitrification of early-stage embryos, the zona pellucida can also be damaged and more hardened, which is presumed to cause a reduction in implantation, due to freezing and vitrification procedure [7,48,56]. Assisted hatching was added to the freezing and thawing procedure and performed prior to transfer of vitrified embryos. Adjunction of assisted hatching has been found to be beneficial in vitrification cycles by increasing pregnancy and implantation [7]. Furthermore, blastocysts with intact zona pellucidae demonstrated increased survival and resistance compared with those with partial or total loss of zona. However, successful cryopreservation of blastocysts, including those totally hatched, lost or escaped from their zona was also suggested in this study, with acceptable rates of survival and pregnancy [57].

Asynchrony between embryo development and endometrial differentiation is the limiting step of successful pregnancy in assisted reproduction. Utsunomiya *et al.* investigated whether or not post-thaw synchronization culture of day 5–6 vitrified embryos, prior to transfer, with endometrial differentiation resulted in pregnancy [58]. They concluded that developmentally retarded frozen embryos can be rescued with synchronizing culture prior to transfer by evading asynchrony.

Since blastocysts are much better suited to the uterine milieu, and because blastocyst formation is a form of selection for more viable embryos, blastocyst transfer has become a promising option to raise the pregnancy rate. Currently, the availability of sequential media has led to a dramatic increase in the practice of blastocyst freezing and much higher pregnancy rates. Reports have documented that the survival rates of human blastocysts using different vitrification protocols are approximately more than 90% with a pregnancy rate of over 50%.

### Expert commentary

Cryopreservation of human embryos has progressed to become a useful tool in human IVF embryo-transfer programs. It is vital to avoid embryo wastage and to augment the pregnancy rate from single-oocyte retrieval. In addition, cryopreservation makes the postponement of embryo transfer in a future cycle possible, thus decreasing the incidence of ovarian hyperstimulation syndrome in high-risk patients.

Therefore, it is essential to establish a simple and reliable procedure to optimize human embryo cryopreservation, a prerequisite of which is developing a better understanding of the factors that influence their survival and implantation potential in order to have the utmost clinical outcome.

Human embryo cryopreservations, prove that vitrification is a simple, inexpensive and safe alternative of traditional slow cooling, resulting in higher survival and *in vitro* developmental rates for PN, multicellular and blastocyst-stage human embryos. With healthy live births following vitrification, the method can be accepted, without any doubt, as a safe procedure.

The main drawback of this method is the exposure of the embryos to a high concentration of cryoprotectant, which may have a detrimental effect. This can be minimized by allowing a very short exposure of the embryos to the cryoprotectants (i.e., 30–40 s), combination of one or more cryoprotectant and using a cryoprotectant that has a less toxic effect on the embryos.

Today, we have to admit that vitrification is gradually replacing slow freezing for cryopreservation of human embryos at different development stages, as well as chill-sensitive cells such as oocytes. The possibility of easy and safe application of early preimplantation techniques and *in vivo* maturation procedure are also other advantages where professionals have benefitted from vitrification of embryos at all stages.

Recently achieved results using vitrification appear to convince more and more professionals of the advantages of this technique, reflected by the increasing number of publications and also by the number of commercial kits introduced for vitrification.

### Five-year view

One of the central issues is whether slow-cooling or rapid-cooling protocols that have been employed in human IVF program satisfy the fundamental principle of minimizing damage during cryo-storage. The extensive reports to date exhibit ongoing improvements in vitrification methods, and further support the overall efficacy of vitrification as a viable alternative to cryopreservation by slow-cooling methods. The early, long vitrification protocols have been replaced by very short and safer procedures, and it is envisaged that the time has come when vitrification of human oocytes and embryos will be used more widely.

The forthcoming challenge is that of oocyte vitrification. Reports published to date indicate that this procedure is significantly better than traditional slow-freezing methods. In comparing the principles, procedures and results of slow cooling and vitrification protocols, both methods resulted in the successful cryopreservation of human oocytes, although slow cooling gives much lower success rates. Although in the last few years, slow-freezing protocols have shown an increase in survival rates, even up to 90%, the pregnancy rate per thawed oocyte is up to 4.2%, which remains poor, appearing to be much lower in comparison with vitrification at 11.2%. Currently, prospective randomized studies are being conducted in some centers comparing these two methods. This will give evidence that vitrification will be the method of choice in future.

### Financial & competing interests disclosure

*The authors have no relevant affiliations or financial involvement with any organization or entity with a financial interest in or financial conflict with the subject matter or materials discussed in the manuscript. This includes employment, consultancies, honoraria, stock ownership or options, expert testimony, grants or patents received or pending, or royalties.*

*No writing assistance was utilized in the production of this manuscript.*

## Key issues

- Human gametes and embryos encounter subzero temperatures and other nonphysiological conditions in both the slow-cooling and vitrification methods of cryopreservation.
- Freezing and storing of surplus embryos also allow the number of replaced embryos in both fresh and frozen embryo transfers to be reduced, thereby diminishing the risk of multiple pregnancies.
- All embryos could be cryopreserved if the woman has a risk of developing ovarian hyperstimulation syndrome.
- The survival and pregnancy rates obtained from vitrification of human oocytes and embryos are at least equal to, or significantly better than, those obtained with traditional slow cooling.
- Vitrification appears to be a rapid and simple technique that favors the biological integrity of both human oocytes and embryos, resulting in higher survival and pregnancy rates.

## References

Papers of special note have been highlighted as:

• of interest

•• of considerable interest

- 1 Trounson A, Mohr L. Human pregnancy following cryopreservation, thawing and transfer of an eight-cell embryo. *Nature* 305, 707–709 (1983).
- **The first pregnancy reported from human frozen embryos was in 1983 in Australia.**
- 2 Zeilmaker GH, Alberta AT, Van Gent I. Two pregnancies following transfer of intact frozen–thawed embryos. *Fertil. Steril.* 42, 293–296 (1984).
- 3 Rall WF, Fahy GM. Ice-free cryopreservation of mouse embryos at  $-196^{\circ}\text{C}$  by vitrification. *Nature* 313, 573–575 (1985).
- 4 Chen SU, Lien YR, Chao KH, Lu HF, Ho HN, Yang YS. Cryopreservation of mature human oocytes by vitrification with ethylene glycol in straws. *Fertil. Steril.* 74, 804–808 (2000).
- 5 Wright DL, Eroglu A, Toner M, Toth TL. Use of sugars in cryopreserving human oocytes. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 9, 179–186 (2004).
- 6 Vanderzwalmen P, Bertin G, Debauche C *et al.* Births after vitrification at morula and blastocyst stages: effect of artificial reduction of the blastocoelic cavity before vitrification. *Hum. Reprod.* 17, 744–751 (2002).
- 7 Vanderzwalmen P, Bertin G, Debauche C *et al.* Vitrification of human blastocysts with the Hemi-straw carrier: application of assisted hatching after thawing. *Hum. Reprod.* 18, 1504–1511 (2003).
- 8 Liebermann J, Tucker MJ. Effect of carrier system on the yield of human oocytes and embryos as assessed by survival and developmental potential after vitrification. *Reproduction* 124, 483–489 (2002).
- 9 Mukaida T, Nakamura S, Tomiyama T *et al.* Vitrification of human blastocysts using cryoloops: clinical outcome of 223 cycles. *Hum. Reprod.* 18, 384–391 (2003).
- 10 Son WY, Lee SY, Chang MJ, Yoon SH, Chian RC, Lim JH. Pregnancy resulting from transfer of repeat vitrified blastocysts produced by *in-vitro* matured oocytes in patient with polycystic ovary syndrome. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 10, 398–401 (2005).
- 11 Menezo Y, Nicolle B, Herbaut N, Andre D. Freezing cocultured human blastocysts. *Fertil. Steril.* 58, 977–980 (1992).
- 12 Al-Hasani S, Diedrich K, Van der Ven H, Reinecke A, Hartje M, Krebs D. Cryopreservation of human oocytes. *Hum. Reprod.* 1, 695–700 (1987).
- 13 Pal L, Kovacs G, Witt B *et al.* Post thaw blastomere survival is predictive of the success of frozen–thawed embryo transfer cycles. *Fertil. Steril.* 82, 821–826 (2004).
- 14 Edgar D, Bourne H, Speirs A, McBain JC. A quantitative analysis of the impact of cryopreservation on the implantation potential of human early cleavage stage embryos. *Hum. Reprod.* 15, 175–179 (2000).
- 15 Veeck LL. Does the developmental stage at freeze impact on clinical results post-thaw? *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 6, 367–374 (2003).
- 16 Ménézo Y. Cryopreservation of IVF embryos: which stage? *Eur. J. Obstet. Gynecol. Reprod. Biol.* 113, 28–32 (2004).
- 17 Edgar DH, Cook DA. How should the clinical efficiency of oocyte cryopreservation be measured? *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 14, 430–435 (2007).
- 18 Kuwayama K, Vajta G, Leda S, Kato O. Comparison of open and closed methods for vitrification of human embryos and the elimination of potential contamination. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 11, 608–614 (2005).
- **Strongest data from a large study of human embryos comparing slow cooling versus vitrification.**
- 19 Vajta G, Nagy ZP. Are programmable freezers still needed in the embryo laboratory? Review on vitrification. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 12, 779–796 (2006).
- 20 Chung HM, Hong SW, Lim JM *et al.* *In vitro* blastocyst formation of human oocytes obtained from unstimulated and stimulated cycles after vitrification at various maturational stages. *Fertil. Steril.* 73, 545–551 (2000).
- 21 Kuleshova LL, Lopata A. Vitrification can be more favorable than slow cooling. *Fertil. Steril.* 78, 449–454 (2002).
- 22 Van Steirteghem AC, Van der Elst J, Van den Abbeel E, Joris H, Camus M, Devroey P. Cryopreservation of supernumerary multicellular human embryos obtained after intracytoplasmic sperm injection. *Fertil. Steril.* 62, 775–780 (1994).
- 23 Al-Hasani S, Ludwig M, Gagsteiger F *et al.* Comparison of cryopreservation of supernumerary pronuclear human oocytes obtained after intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) and after conventional *in-vitro* fertilization. *Hum. Reprod.* 11, 604–607 (1996).
- 24 Hoover L, Baker A, Check JH, Lurine D, Summers D. clinical outcome of cryopreserved human pronuclear stage embryos resulting from intracytoplasmic sperm injection. *Fertil. Steril.* 67, 621–624 (1997).
- 25 Toner JP, Brzyski RG, Oehninger S, Veeck LL, Simonetti S, Muasher SJ. Combined impact of the number of pre-ovulatory oocytes and cryopreservation on IVF outcome. *Hum. Reprod.* 6, 284–289 (1991).
- 26 Kahn JA, von Düring V, Sunde A, Sordal T, Molne K. The efficacy and efficiency of an *in-vitro* fertilization

- programme including embryo cryopreservation: a cohort study. *Hum. Reprod.* 8, 247–252 (1993).
- 27 Schroder AK, Banz C, Katalinic A *et al.* Counselling on cryopreservation of pronucleated oocytes. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 6, 69–74 (2003).
- 28 Horne G, Critchlow JD, Newman MC, Edozien L, Matson PL, Lieberman BA. A prospective evaluation of cryopreservation strategies in a two-embryo transfer programme. *Hum. Reprod.* 12, 542–547 (1997).
- 29 Kattera S, Shrivastav P, Craft I. Comparison of pregnancy outcome of pronuclear- and multicellular-stage frozen–thawed embryo transfers. *J. Assist. Reprod. Genet.* 16, 358–362 (1999).
- 30 Salumets A, Tuuri T, Maëkinen S *et al.* Effect of developmental stage of embryo at freezing on pregnancy outcome of frozen–thawed embryo transfer. *Hum. Reprod.* 18, 1891–1895 (2003).
- 31 Senn A, Vozzi C, Chanson A, De Grandi P, Germond M. Prospective randomized study of two cryopreservation policies avoiding embryo selection: the pronucleate stage leads to a higher cumulative delivery rate than the early cleavage stage. *Fertil. Steril.* 74, 946–952 (2000).
- 32 Mukaida T, Wada M, Takahashi K, Pedro PB, An TZ, Kasai M. Vitrification of human embryos based on the assessment of suitable conditions for 8-cell mouse embryos. *Hum. Reprod.* 13, 2874–2879 (1998).
- 33 El-Danasouri I, Selman H. Successful pregnancies and deliveries after a simple vitrification protocol for day 3 human embryos. *Fertil. Steril.* 76, 400–402 (2001).
- 34 Saito H, Ishida GM, Kaneko T *et al.* Application of vitrification to human embryo freezing. *Gynecol. Obstet. Invest.* 49, 145–149 (2000).
- 35 Hredzak R, Ostro A, Zdilova V, Toporcerova S, Kacmarik J. Clinical experience with a modified method of human embryo vitrification. *Ceska Gynekol.* 70, 99–103 (2005).
- 36 Al-Hasani S, Ozmen B, Koutlaki N, Schoepper B, Diedrich K, Schultze-Mosgau A. Three years of routine vitrification of human zygotes: is it still fair to advocate slow-rate freezing? *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 14, 288–293 (2007).
- **After 3 years of experience in vitrification of pronuclear-stage zygotes, this group reported a high survival rate (89%) and**
- a pregnancy rate three-times higher than that obtained with the slow-rate freezing method used previously in the same center.**
- 37 Rama Raju GA, Haranath GB, Krishna KM, Prakash GJ, Madan K. Vitrification of human 8-cell embryos a modified protocol for better pregnancy rates. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 11, 434–437 (2005).
- 38 Liebermann J, Tucker MJ. Comparison of vitrification and conventional cryopreservation of day 5 and day 6 blastocysts during clinical application. *Fertil. Steril.* 86, 20–26 (2006).
- 39 Huang CC, Lee TH, Chen SU *et al.* Successful pregnancy following blastocyst cryopreservation using super-cooling ultra-rapid vitrification. *Hum. Reprod.* 20, 122–128 (2005).
- 40 Stehlik E, Stehlik J, Katayama KP *et al.* Vitrification demonstrates significant improvement versus slow freezing of human blastocysts. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 11, 53–57 (2005).
- **Retrospective study involving cryopreservation of day 5 and day 6 human blastocysts, which took place using two different protocols.**
- 41 Katayama KP, Stehlik J, Kuwayama M, Kato O, Stehlik F. High survival rate of vitrified human oocytes results in clinical pregnancy. *Fertil. Steril.* 80, 223–224 (2003).
- 42 Fisch JD, Sher G, Adamowicz M, Keskintepe L. The graduated embryo score predicts the outcome of assisted reproductive technologies better than a single day 3 evaluation and achieves results associated with blastocyst transfer from day 3 embryo transfer. *Fertil. Steril.* 80, 1352–1358 (2003).
- 43 Menezo YJ. Blastocyst freezing. *Eur. J. Obstet. Gynecol. Reprod. Biol.* 1, 12–15 (2004).
- 44 Kaufman RA, Ménézo Y, Hazout A, Nicolle , DuMont M, Servy EJ. Cocultured blastocyst cryopreservation: experience of more than 500 transfer cycles *Fertil. Steril.* 64, 1125–1129 (1995).
- 45 Langley MT, Marek DE, Nackley AC, Doody KM, Doody KJ. Frozen blastocyst transfer: a five year evaluation of controlled rate cryopreservation technique. *Fertil. Steril.* 80(Suppl. 3), 150–151 (2003).
- 46 Anderson AR, Weikert ML, Crain JL. Determining the most optimal stage for embryo cryopreservation. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 8, 207–211 (2004).
- 47 Troup SA, Matson PL, Critchlow JD, Morroll DR, Liebermann BA, Burslem RW. Cryopreservation of human embryos at the pronucleate, early cleavage, or expanded blastocyst stages. *Eur. J. Obstet. Gynecol. Reprod. Biol.* 38, 133–139 (1990).
- 48 Mukaida T, Nakamura S, Tomiyama Twada S, Kasai M, Takahashi K. Successful birth after transfer of vitrified human blastocysts with use of a cryoloop containerless technique. *Fertil. Steril.* 76, 618–620 (2001).
- 49 Reed ML, Lane M, Gardner DK, Jensen NL, Thompson J. Vitrification of human blastocysts using the cryoloop method: successful clinical application and birth of offspring. *J. Assist. Reprod. Genet.* 19, 304–306 (2002).
- 50 Takahashi K, Mukida T, Goto T, Oka C. Perinatal outcome of blastocyst transfer with vitrification using cryoloop: a 4-year follow-up study. *Fertil. Steril.* 84, 88–92 (2005).
- 51 Cho HJ, Son WY, Yoon SH, Lee SW, Lim JH. Improved protocol for dilution of cryoprotectants from vitrified human blastocysts. *Hum. Reprod.* 17, 2419–2422 (2002).
- 52 Vajta G, Holm P, Kuwayama M *et al.* Open pulled straw (OPS) vitrification: a new way to reduce cryoinjuries of bovine ova and embryos. *Mol. Reprod. Dev.* 51, 53–58 (1998).
- 53 Yokota Y, Sato S, Yokota M, Yokota H, Araki Y. Birth of a healthy baby following vitrification of human blastocysts. *Fertil. Steril.* 75, 1027–1029 (2001).
- 54 Son WY, Yoon SH, Yoon HJ *et al.* Pregnancy outcome following transfer of human blastocysts vitrified on electron microscopy grids after induced collapse of the blastocoel. *Hum. Reprod.* 18, 137–139 (2003).
- 55 Hiraoka K, Hiraoka K, Kinutani M *et al.* *Hum. Reprod.* 19, 2884–2888 (2004).
- 56 Shaw JM, Jones GM. Terminology associated with vitrification and other cryopreservation procedures for oocytes and embryos. *Hum. Reprod. Update* 9, 583–605 (2003).
- 57 Zech NH, Lejeune B, Zech H, Vanderzwalmen P. Vitrification of hatching and hatched human blastocysts:

- effect of an opening in the zona pellucida before vitrification. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 11, 355–361 (2005).
- 58 Utsunomiya T, Ito H, Hirai K, Otsu E, Watanabe H, Mori T. Developmentally retarded frozen blastocysts can be rescued by synchronizing culture prior to transfer. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 12, 622–629 (2006).
- 59 Zhu GJ, Jin L, Zhang HW, Li YF, Wei YL, Hu J. Vitrification of human cleaved embryos *in vitro* fertilization-embryo transfer. *Zhonghua Fu Chan Ke Za Zhi* 40, 682–684 (2005).
- 60 Isachenko V, Selman H, Isachenko E, Montag M, El-Danasouri I, Nawroth F. Modified vitrification of human pronuclear oocytes: efficacy and effect on ultrastructure. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 7, 211–216 (2003).
- 61 Mukaida T, Takahashi K, Kassi M. Blastocyst cryopreservation: ultrarapid vitrification using cryoloop technique. *Reprod. Biomed. Online* 6, 221–225 (2003).

### Affiliations

- Mohamed Youssry, MD  
Lecturer of Obstetrics and Gynecology and Reproductive Techniques, Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt; and Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University of Schleswig – Holstein, Luebeck, Germany  
Tel.: +20 101 450 530  
Fax: +20 348 323 63  
mayoussry@yahoo.com

- Yasser Orief, MD  
Lecturer of Obstetrics & Gynecology Alexandria university, Alexandria, Egypt  
Tel.: +20 108 233 121  
Fax: +20 348 323 63  
yaserorief@yahoo.com
- Vassilis Palapelas  
Department of Obstetrics & Gynecology, Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece  
Tel.: +30 231 042 7427  
Fax: +30 231 042 7427  
palapelas@the.forthnet.gr
- Safaa Al-Hasani, MD  
University of Luebeck, Department of Obstetrics & Gynecology, Ratzeburger Allee 160, 23560, Luebeck, Germany  
Tel.: +49 451 500 2155  
Fax: +49 451 500 4764  
sf\_alhasani@hotmail.com