

1 STATE OF THE ART IN ASSISTED REPRODUCTIVE TECHNOLOGIES FOR
2 PATIENTS WITH ADVANCED MATERNAL AGE

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13 **Abstract**

14 According to the WHO reproductive female age lasts up to 49 years, but problems
15 with realization of women’s reproductive rights may arise much earlier. A significant
16 number of factors affect the state of reproductive health: socioeconomic; ecological;
17 lifestyle features; the level of medical literacy; the state of the organization and medical
18 care quality. Among the reasons for the fertility decline in advanced reproductive age
19 are the loss of cellular receptors for gonadotropins; increasing the threshold of
20 sensitivity of the hypothalamic pituitary system to the action of hormones and their
21 metabolites and many others. Furthermore negative changes **accumulate in the oocyte**
22 **genome reducing** the possibility of fertilization, normal development and implantation
23 of the embryo and healthy offspring birth. Another theory of aging causing changes in
24 oocytes is mitochondrial free radical theory of aging. Taking into account all these age-
25 related changes in gametogenesis, this review considers modern technologies aimed at
26 preserving and realization of female fertility. Among existing approaches two main
27 ones can be distinguished: methods allowing to preserve reproductive cells at a
28 younger age by ART intervention and cryobanking, as well as methods aimed at
29 improving the basic functional state of advanced age women oocytes and embryos.

30 **KEYWORDS:** fertility preservation, advanced age women, oocyte, assisted
31 reproductive technologies, platelet-rich plasma, mitochondrial donation.

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34 **INTRODUCTION**

35 According to WHO reproductive health is a state of complete physical, mental
36 and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity, in all matters
37 relating to the reproductive system and to its functions and processes (World Health
38 Organization WHO, 2021). Reproductive health implies that people are able to have a
39 satisfying and safe sex life and that they have the capability to reproduce and the
40 freedom to decide if, when and how often to do so. Despite the fact that according to
41 WHO the reproductive age in females lasts up to 49 years (World Health Organization
42 WHO, 2006), problems with the realization of their reproductive rights in women may
43 arise much earlier. After 35 years, most women experience a decline in sexual functions
44 and a deteriorating general health. Of course, this does not happen for everyone, but
45 there is a high probability that a woman will face certain difficulties at this age. A slight
46 decrease in reproductive function is noted from 27-28 years old, becoming even more
47 pronounced at ages between 35 and 40 years old, and by the age of 45 reproductive
48 function approaches zero.

49 Recently, women have increasingly realized their reproductive function at a later
50 reproductive age when they have moved forward their career progression and acquired
51 a certain material status necessary for full-fledged child care and upbringing. There are
52 constant discussions about the expediency of motherhood in advanced reproductive
53 age.

54 A significant number of factors affect reproductive health state: socioeconomic,
55 ecological, lifestyle, the level of medical literacy, the state of the organization and the
56 quality of their available medical care (Wu et al., 2000). They affect the womens'
57 fertility in a different manner while age-related changes occur in everyone.

58 **AGE - RELATED REASONS FOR FERTILITY DECLINE IN WOMAN**

59 Negative changes accumulate in the oocyte's genome with age. This reduces the
60 fertilization possibility, normal embryo development should fertilization have been
61 achieved, and implantation and healthy offspring birthrates (Franasiak et al., 2014).
62 However, within the cohort of developing embryos from such aged women, many
63 blastocysts with euploid chromosome set number are also unable to implant and
64 develop into living embryos. Therefore age-related ooplasm abnormalities may also
65 reduce oocytes' competence even after fertilization and progress to adversely affect
66 embryonic development (Capalbo et al., 2014).

67 Age determinate deterioration of morphological and functional oocyte
68 characteristics and the embryos obtained from them have a multifactorial nature. It has
69 been shown that the diameter of cytoplasm and thickness of *Zona pellucida* decrease
70 linearly with the age of women (Valeri et al., 2011). Cell volume decreasing may be
71 due to changes of ion pumps activity or the ability to regulate homeostatic water
72 balance. Decreased oocytes quality may be associated with impaired lipid metabolism
73 and decreased melatonin in follicular fluid (Cordeiro et al., 2011; M. Zhang et al.,
74 2020).

75 Despite the contribution of the paternal genome to the embryo chromosomal
76 balance, it is considered that the mother's age is the main cause of embryo aneuploidies.
77 Age-related chromosomal abnormalities mainly arise because of meiotic impairments
78 during oogenesis, following flawed chromosome segregation patterns such as non-
79 disjunction, premature separation of sister or their reverse segregation (Cimadomo et
80 al., 2018). The chromosomal aberration rate in MII stage oocytes of advanced
81 reproductive age patients vary from 4% to 62% (Kuliev et al., 2005). Cytogenetic
82 analysis of unfertilized oocytes showed an increase with age chromosomal abnormality
83 rate (Petrushko, 2003). It is believed that the risks of aneuploidy may be associated
84 with a long delay of the oocyte's I stage meiosis which occurs before ovulation
85 ovulation (Pellestor et al., 2003). It is known that oocytes telomeres begin to shorten

86 due to the chronic effects of oxidative and genotoxic stresses over lifetime, the late exit
87 of female gametes from the their cell cycle cessation as well as due to reduced
88 telomerase activity (Keefe et al., 2006), cohesin dysfunction and meiotic spindle
89 abnormalities (Keefe et al., 2015).

90 Evaluation of genes OCT4, SOX2, CDX2, GATA3, YAP expression and
91 corresponding embryo proteins from young and advanced age women showed that the
92 expression of SOX2 and CDX2 genes in embryos at the morula stage in the group of
93 women over 38 years old was statistically lower than in the group of young patients
94 (Gharanfoli et al., 2020).

95 The most common specific abnormalities in embryos of women older than 36
96 years are the sex chromosome monosomy (45, X) which accounts for almost 10% of
97 all miscarriages and trisomies 16, 21 and 22, which together account for 50% of all
98 miscarriages detected in spontaneous abortions (Gharanfoli et al., 2020).

99 Another theory of aging causing changes in the cell, including oocytes is mito-
100 chondrial free radical theory of aging (Barja, 2014). According to this theory, reactive
101 oxygen species (ROS) and various toxic byproducts of aerobic metabolism, which are
102 probably involved in cellular damage to genomes and mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA)
103 and the associated with mutations. Increased production of ROS causes a clear
104 disruption of the respiratory chain of the cell, leading to the accumulation of mutations
105 and unbalanced redox activity (Taylor & Turnbull, 2005; Fragouli et al., 2015). Basal
106 ROS levels often decline during the normal mitochondrial function phase within the
107 respiratory chain, while the excess amount of cellular ROS is determined by aging,
108 which contributes to a significant increased oxidative damage and loss of cellular
109 activity. Thus, there is a change in mitochondrial function: decreasing of mitochondrial
110 membrane potential (MMP), oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) and the number of
111 mtDNA copies in advanced age women comparing with younger women (May-
112 Panloup et al., 2016). This coincides with lower mtDNA levels in advanced age woman

113 embryos at the early cleavage stage, but paradoxically the opposite was observed at the
114 blastocyst stage, with higher mtDNA levels associated with increased aneuploidy and
115 failed implantation (Fragouli & Wells, 2015; Liu et al., 2017).

116 **ART FEATURES FOR ADVANCED REPRODUCTIVE AGE WOMEN**

117 An increase in serum progesterone and estradiol levels is observed in advanced
118 reproductive age patients (Chahal & Drake, 2007). They have a poor response to
119 stimulation of superovulation (Seifer et al., 2011). The oocytes fertilization rate is
120 significantly lower in patients aged more than 36 years comparing with younger ones
121 (Asada et al., 2019). All of these factors lead to the fact that the effectiveness of ART
122 programs in women over 40 years old is about 5% (J. Zhang, 2015). These unsuccessful
123 ART outcomes pushed reproductive specialists and scientists to carry out scientific
124 research to improve reproductive indicators for advanced age women. Among existing
125 approaches two main ones can be distinguished: methods allowing to preserve
126 reproductive cells at a younger age by ART intervention and cryobanking, as well as
127 methods aimed at improving the existing functional indicators of oocytes, embryos of
128 advanced age women to aid optimal selection during ART.

129 ***CRYOTECHNOLOGY AS THE BASIS FOR PRESERVING REPRODUCTIVE*** 130 ***POTENTIAL OF ADVANCED AGE WOMEN***

131 Economically developed countries pass laws on reproductive health protection.
132 Scientists are developing methods to prevent reproductive health and prolong it for the
133 longest possible period. Modern methods of preserving reproductive health and
134 prolonging the reproductive period of women are based on the use of cryotechnology.

135 Oocytes' freezing for so-called "social reasons" female groups applies to women
136 who seek to prolong, protect and secure their fertility for later years (Simopoulou et
137 al., 2018). In 2013, the American Society for Reproductive Medicine for the first time

138 approved cryopreservation of oocytes as non-experimental (Society for Assisted
139 Reproductive Technology, 2013). Experience has shown that cryopreservation of
140 oocytes is a promising area for maintaining female fertility. However, it is important
141 not only to obtain a high survival rate of oocytes after cryopreservation and preserve
142 their main function, but also to ensure the absence of negative effects of
143 cryopreservation factors on the genome of embryos that developed from oocytes after
144 long-term low temperature storage.

145 Data on the chromosomal status of embryos derived from cryopreserved oocytes
146 are quite contradictory. Some studies have found that cryopreservation factors can
147 induce meiotic spindle abnormalities and chromosome disorganization in human
148 oocytes, which, in turn, may increase appearance of embryos with aneuploid
149 chromosome sets number (Bromfield et al., 2009). However we have previously shown
150 that the level of chromosomal aneuploidy of embryos derived from cryopreserved and
151 fresh oocytes did not exhibit significant differences (Buderatska et al., 2020). It should
152 be noted that such results were obtained in a study of women with a mean age of 27.6
153 \pm 4.8 years.

154 There are very few data in the scientific literature on autologous oocytes
155 cryopreservation for advanced age women with successful pregnancy and childbirth
156 (Parmegiani et al., 2009).

157 Recent publications reported that survival rate after cryopreservation was
158 increased recent years, which confirms the influence of methodological approaches to
159 female gamete cryopreservation provided by optimal ART (Pai et al., 2021). The
160 turning point in the improvement of oocyte cryopreservation methods was the use of
161 vitrification (Kuleshova et al., 1999). The absence of ice crystals formation when the
162 temperature was lowered to -196 C and at the stage of warming made it possible to
163 reduce the level of cell damage and significantly increase the efficiency of oocyte
164 cryopreservation comparing with slow freezing (Levi-Setti et al., 2016). Also using

165 different technique prior to cryopreservation of oocytes and embryos at various
166 preimplantation stages could help to preserve their functional characteristics in the
167 women of younger ages (Petrushko et al., 2018; Petrushko et al., 2019). It should be
168 noted that the state of the endometrium is also very important, when transferring
169 embryos which contributes to the level of implantation. Women older than 38 years
170 have reduced implantation (6.5% vs. 10.9%, $p = 0.01$) and pregnancy (10.1 vs. 18.7%,
171 $p = 0.02$) rates compared to younger women (Borini et al., 2010). More optimistic
172 results of the incidence of pregnancy are given in the work of L. Rienzi - 12.6% for
173 women in the older group against 27.5% for women younger than 38 years (Rienzi et
174 al., 2012).

175 The results of oocyte cryopreservation depending on woman age revealed that
176 "take home baby" rate ranged from 5% to 17% in patients older than 40 years. The
177 birth rate in patients aged 41–42 years was 2% –3% lower than in patients aged 37–40
178 years (Cil and Seli, 2013).

179 Data from the US Reproductive Technology Association in 2013 showed that live
180 births rate in cycles with fresh embryos from non-donor oocytes decreases from 21%
181 at the age of 38-40 to 11% at the age of 41-42 with further reduction to 4.5% for age
182 under 42 years.

183 Cryopreservation of oocytes by social indicators in younger age and subsequent
184 *in vitro* fertilization and embryo transfer gives women who expect to become pregnant
185 in advanced age two important benefits: becoming genetic parents to their own
186 offspring and reducing the risk of having children with chromosomal abnormalities
187 associated with aneuploidy. In addition, freezing oocytes may be the best alternative
188 for women who do not have a partner at a particular stage in life or who have moral
189 prejudices about embryos cryopreservation (Buderatska and Petrushko, 2016).

190 The use of cryotechnology to preserve women's fertility in young age is not
191 limited to cryopreservation of oocytes. This is due to the fact that in contrast to the

192 “social reasons” for postponing of conception, there are also medicinal ones, in which
193 there are a number of contraindications for induction of superovulation in order to
194 obtain mature oocytes. In such cases, ovarian tissue cryopreservation (OTC) is
195 recommended before gonadotoxic therapy for the purpose of further transplantation
196 after recovery at an older age (Kim et al., 2018). OTC also can be offered as an
197 alternative to preserve fertility in young patients at risk of premature ovarian
198 insufficiency. However, despite significant advances in the development of methods
199 for OTC, a little more than 130 children have been born to date. Restore fertility using
200 OTC could be realized by ovarian tissue transplantation or *in vitro* maturation with
201 followed by *in vitro* fertilization. It should be noted that transplantation of ovarian
202 tissue has a number of contraindications, especially in cases where the ovary is
203 involved in the malignancy. The efficiency of OTC procedure is questionable above
204 36 years of age and it is still considered as experimental in many countries, and
205 legislations and regulations vary (ESHRE, 2020).

206 ***TECHNIQUES IMPROVING OOCYTE AND EMBRYO QUALITY OF ADVANCED AGE***
207 ***WOMAN***

208 Methods for improving of fresh or cryopreserved oocytes and embryos quality are
209 proposed: for example, co-culture systems with Vero, oviduct and endometrium cells
210 (Moshkdanian et al., 2011); microsurgical removal of fragmentation in day 2 embryos
211 (Kim et al., 2018), individualization of the embryo day transfer etc. (Yoon et al., 2001).
212 The most promising method of oocyte renewing taking in to consideration
213 mitochondrial free radical theory of aging is mitochondrial replacement therapy
214 (MRT). As known that, unlike the nuclear genome, which is inherited equally from
215 both parents, the mitochondrial genome is transmitted mainly from the mothers’
216 gamete (Zou et al., 2020). Mitochondrial DNA is circular in structure and contains 37
217 genes controlling production of proteins involved in energy metabolism. Thus mtDNA

218 mutation can affect organs that depend on it, giving rise to several incurable diseases,
219 such as: deafness, diabetes mellitus, myopathies, glaucoma and others (Costa et al.,
220 2016). MRT could be performed by several techniques each of them has advantages
221 and disadvantages.

222 ***OOPLOASM TRANSFER***

223 The first donor cytoplasm containing healthy mitochondria along with sperm was
224 transferred to the 39-year-old recipient oocyte's cytoplasm using ICSI procedure in
225 1997 (Cohen et al., 1997). In this case, the reconstituted zygote contains the original
226 parent nuclear DNA and mixed mtDNA from both donor and recipient oocytes.
227 However, this technology was later banned due to mitochondrial heteroplasm with two
228 types of mtDNA and chromosomal abnormalities in the future offspring (Barritt et al.,
229 2001; Mobarak et al., 2019).

230 ***MEIOTIC SPINDLE TRANSFER***

231 The first live birth case in human using meiotic spindle transfer was reported by
232 Zhang et al. in a 36-year-old woman diagnosed with Leigh syndrome (Zhang, Liu et
233 al., 2016). The metaphase II meiotic spindle was extracted from the recipient's oocyte
234 and transferred to a healthy donor oocyte with a pre-removed own spindle. After
235 fertilization of the reconstructed oocyte by ICSI the resulting zygote contains
236 mitochondria from a healthy donor and the original nuclear DNA of the parents. Using
237 this method of MRT less than 1% of maternally affected mtDNA has been transferred
238 to offspring (Craven et al., 2017). However, this indicator of the maternal mtDNA
239 content may fluctuate depending on technical aspects such as competency of the
240 embryologist involved.

241 ***POLAR BODY TRANSFER (PBT)***

242 To perform PBT, the first polar body of the recipient's oocyte is transferred to the
243 enucleated donor's oocyte. After that, the reconstructed oocyte is fertilized by the ICSI
244 method. Besides the first PBT, it is possible to carry out the transfer of the second PB.
245 After fertilization of the recipient's oocyte secretes the second polar body which is
246 extracted and transferred to the donor's zygote with the previously removed female
247 pronucleus. PBT has several advantages such as minimum transfer of affected patients
248 mtDNA due to the fact that PB includes few mtDNA copies due and PBT yields
249 undetectable carryover of donor mtDNA in two generations (Wang et al., 2014). Also
250 PBT leads to less chromosomal damage due to the PB structural features and location.
251 Moreover in case of the first PBT this technique could be used to double the number
252 of oocytes in the case of poor responders with the absence of mtDNA abnormality.

253 *PRONUCLEAR TRANSFER (PNT)*

254 This technology of mitochondrial transfer consists in the fact that pronuclei of one
255 zygote are transferred to another enucleated zygote. To do this, a donor oocyte and an
256 oocyte with a disturbed mitochondrial DNA are fertilized with the sperm of the future
257 father. Shortly after the appearance of pronuclei, a pronuclear transfer is carried out
258 into the zygote obtained from the donor oocyte. Thus, the embryo carries the nuclear
259 DNA of the parents, and the donor mitochondrial DNA.

260 This technique has number of advantages, since pronuclei are well visualized
261 under a light microscope without the use of additional equipment, and the fertilization
262 procedure can be performed by ICSI as well as IVF. However, from an ethical point of
263 view, the implementation of this technique requires the destruction of the embryo at
264 the zygote stage, and it is this method of mitochondrial transport that has the greatest
265 limitations in some efforts (Ishii and Hibino, 2018). In addition, for the fusion of
266 pronuclei and donor cytoplasm, the inactivated viral vector SeV (Sendai virus, also

267 known as HVJ-E) is used (Tachibana et al., 2009; Craven et al., 2010). The absence of
268 viral genetic material has been shown (Tachibana et al., 2009).

269 The first report of a successful pregnancy with fetus bearing a normal karyotype
270 and low heteroplasias rate was received in 2016 in a 30 year old woman with two
271 unsuccessful IVF attempts, as a result of which all the resulting embryos stopped
272 developing at the two-cell stage (Zhang, Zhuang et al., 2016).

273 ***GERMINAL VESICLE TRANSFER (GVT)***

274 Immature oocytes in prophase I of the first meiosis have a nucleus which stays in
275 form of “germinal vesicle” until meiosis resumption. GVT is removed and transferred
276 to a donor oocyte with previously extruded its germinal vesicle. The ooplast and
277 karyoplast merger is conducted by electrofusion with an electro cell manipulator then
278 the reconstructed oocyte undergoes *in vitro* maturation followed by fertilization.

279 This technique was firstly applied for advanced reproductive age women by
280 Zhang et al in 1999, however, the reconstructed oocytes have not reached the mature
281 stage (J. Zhang et al., 1999).

282 The advantage of GVT is that it can be performed before the onset of MI meiosis.
283 Since mitochondria play an important role in chromosome segregation the restoration
284 of mitochondria prior to meiosis I may contribute to a higher level of euploid set of
285 oocyte chromosomes and the development of a normal embryo after fertilization
286 (Tanaka and Watanabe, 2018). Whether GVT can save chromosomal abnormalities in
287 age-related oocytes needs further study.

288 ***AUGMENT TECHNOLOGY***

289 Autologous germline mitochondrial energy transfer (AUGMENT) is the strategy
290 launched by OvaScience in 2014 to transfer producing energy mitochondria from
291 autologous egg precursor cells into the oocytes. This action has been shown to enhance

292 the quality of the egg and fetus (Fakih, 2015; Cozzolino et al., 2019). The results of
293 other researchers indicate the lack of a positive effect on fertilization, the development
294 of euploid embryos for patients whose average age was 36.3 ± 3.6 years, and further
295 studies of the effectiveness of this method on oocytes of older women which are
296 characterized by a pronounced decrease in energy reserves are required (Labarta et al.,
297 2019).

298 Autologous mitochondrial injections are also carried out with the use of cumulus
299 and granulosa cells which improve the fertilization rate, the quality of the embryos for
300 3 days and the pregnancy rate (Tian et al., 2019). However, the use of autologous
301 mitochondrial injections is useless in situations of mitochondrial mutations, which can
302 increase with age.

303 ***STEM CELLS FOR GERM CELL PRODUCTION***

304 Another alternative direction for reproduction of advanced age woman is
305 reconstituting gametogenesis *in vitro*. In the renewal of ovarian reserve and the
306 competence of germ cells is the production of mature gametes from germ cell
307 progenitor stem cells, embryonic stem cells, tail tip of fibroblasts, or even by
308 reprogramming granulosa cells into oocytes (Tian et al., 2019; Hikabe et al. 2016;
309 Hayashi et al., 2012). Successful *in vitro* reconstitution of primordial germ cells has
310 recently had a significant effect in the field. The authors have demonstrated entire
311 process of mammalian oogenesis in mice *in vitro* from primordial germ cells, birth of
312 fertile offspring obtained from a cultured gonad (Morohaku et al. 2016).

313 Skin derived stem cells (SDSCs) constitute a heterogeneous population of stem
314 cells generated *in vitro* from dermis, which can be cultured as spherical aggregates of
315 cells in suspension culture. Under certain *in vitro* or *in vivo* conditions, SDSCs show
316 multipotency and can generate a variety cell types (Ge et al., 2016). It has been shown
317 that SDSCs are able to produce primordial germ cell-like cells *in vitro*, and even

318 oocyte-like cells. Whether these germ cell-like cells can give rise to viable progeny
319 remains, however, unknown.

320 *USING OF PRP THERAPY FOR FERTILITY PRESERVATION OF ADVANCED AGE*
321 *WOMEN*

322 Ovarian tissue rejuvenation due to the paracrine effect of platelet-rich plasma
323 (PRP) has become a fairly new and actively developing direction (Cakiroglu et al.,
324 2020).

325 Many studies have documented that the use of PRP can reduce the signs of
326 inflammation, postoperative blood loss, infection, and in addition leads to accelerated
327 osteogenesis and healing of wounds and soft tissues (Park et al., 2011). Many articles
328 report that PRP therapy implementing can enhance healing and the anti-aging process,
329 employing angiogenesis regeneration due to the multiple growth factors and cytokines
330 involved (Du et al., 2020).

331 PRP realizes its effects due to cytokines and growth factors that are contained in
332 platelet granules, such as transforming growth factor- β , insulin-like growth factors 1
333 and 2 (IGF-1 and IGF-2), vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), epidermal
334 growth factor (EGF), hepatocyte growth factor (HGF), basic fibroblast growth factor
335 (bFGF), granulocyte colony-stimulating factor (G-CSF) and many others (Amable et
336 al., 2013; Ramaswamy et al., 2018).

337 The addition of Ca^{2+} to PRP leads to the release of platelet granule contents and
338 activation of processes induced by growth factors (Amable et al., 2013). PRP
339 cryopreservation can activate platelet granules in addition to the advantage of a
340 prolonged shelf life (Kleinveld et al., 2020; Kelly et al., 2019).

341 The use of PRP therapy could be applied in the fight against infertility of women
342 with a poor response, premature ovarian insufficiency and late reproductive age, who
343 do not want to carry out the oocyte donation program, made it possible to improve the

344 hormonal background and activate folliculogenesis in the ovaries (Melo et al., 2020;
345 Sills et al., 2020).

346 Given the inverse relationship between aging, growth hormone concentration and
347 IGF-1 (Fanciulli et al., 2009), the use of PRP reached in various cytokines and growth
348 factors, including IGF-1, for injections into ovarian tissue leads to an increase in cell
349 proliferation and the follicles development.

350 It was shown that the injection of autologous PRP into the ovarian tissue of
351 women with limited ovarian reserve or absence of menstruation for more than 1 year
352 improved fertility in all patients aged 42 ± 4 years. Thus, 5.3 ± 1.3 MII oocytes and at
353 least one embryo suitable for freezing were received for each patient in IVF cycle in
354 78 days after treatment (Sills et al., 2018). Similar results were obtained by other
355 authors, who reported an improvement of hormonal status and pregnancy rate including
356 natural, after PRP therapy in women with low ovarian reserve (Petryk et al., 2020).
357 Since 2019, several cases of childbirth after PRP therapy have been published as well
358 as the onset of natural pregnancy in women with premature menopause (Farimani et
359 al., 2019; Pantos et al., 2019).

360 Except injection into the ovarian tissue PRP could be used to increase the
361 effectiveness of oocyte *in vitro* maturation methods, which is relevant for patients with
362 polycystic ovary syndrome, poor responders, fertility preservation for women of
363 different reproductive ages (Yurchuk et al., 2021). It has been shown that addition PRP
364 into the maturation media increase the quality of bovine mature oocytes (gametes with
365 a high mitochondrial potential), and leads to an improvement in bovine embryos
366 development (Moulavi et al., 2020; Ramos-Deus et al., 2020) Thus, despite
367 encouraging achievements of *in vivo* and *in vitro* PRP using for improving fertility of
368 patients with advanced maternal age, more extensive data base evidence are requested.

369 The advantages and disadvantages of the main methods for improving oocyte
370 function and fertility potential are reflected in Table.

371 **CONCLUSIONS**

372 The possibility of realization of reproductive function in women of late
373 reproductive period is one of the urgent problems of modern science. Assisted
374 reproductive technologies have advanced in the fight not only with infertility in young
375 women, but also in older patients. Some approaches are aimed at improving the
376 reproductive function of women of late reproductive age by preserving fertility at an
377 early age namely by cryopreservation of oocytes or embryos. Physicians should inform
378 all patients of reproductive age about reduced fertility after the age of 35 and
379 recommend not postponing pregnancy planning to late reproductive age **or preserve**
380 **fertility using cryopreservation techniques.** Patients should be informed about the
381 current possibilities of science to ensure the preservation of reproductive function
382 through the use of cryotechnology and to allow them to make informed choices.

383 Other approaches are aimed at improving the quality of oocytes and embryos
384 obtained from women of late reproductive age. Among these technologies, the methods
385 of mitochondrial replacement are especially prominent, as the main source of aging of
386 female oocytes. Such technologies are aimed at preserving the mother's nuclear
387 genotype to make possible generating genetically one's own child in advanced
388 reproductive age patients. Whilst these technologies are pushing the boundaries for
389 manipulating female reproductive cells to achieve better outcomes in ART, the
390 optimistic results of studies on gametogenesis reconstitution from somatic stem cells
391 do not yet make it possible to implement them in clinical practice and require
392 significant further research and validation. At the same time, the growing popularity
393 of the use of PRP therapy to improve reproductive hormonal background and activate
394 folliculogenesis in women of older reproductive age requires further in-depth research
395 and has good prospects for treatment.

396 **CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

397 The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interests.

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673

674 Table 1

Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Oocyte cryopreservation	High survival, fertilization, embryo development and pregnancy rate	Oocytes of advanced reproductive age have lower quality and may have additional damage during cryopreservation
Embryo cryopreservation	High survival, embryo development and pregnancy rate	Ethical point, in case of the absence of a permanent partner

Ovarian tissue cryopreservation	Recommended before gonadotoxic therapy	Age above 36 years old, the risk of malignant cell reinroduction in some cases, not very high birth rate after trasplantation.
Ooplasm transfer	Improving mitochondrial oocyte status	Mitochondrial heteroplasm with two types of mtDNA
Meiotic spindle transfer	Reconstructed oocyte by ICSI the resulting zygote contains mitochondria from a healthy donor and the original nuclear DNA of the parents. Less than 1% of marternal affected mt DNA	The maternal mtDNA content may fluctuate depending on the performer qualifications
Polar body transfer	Minimum transfer of affected patients mtDNA less chromosomal damage could be used to double the number of oocytes	-
Pronuclear transfer	Ppronuclei are well visualized that makes easier to perform the procedure, fertilization procedure can be conducted as ICSI and IVF	Ethical point deals with embryo distraction
Germinal vesicle transfer	Could provide positive effect on chromosome segregation if performed before the onset of MI meiosis	Not well developed <i>in vitro</i> maturation technique
AUGMENT technology	Enhance the quality of the egg and fetus	Mitochondrial heteroplasm, useless in mitochondrial mutations
Stem cells	Entire process of mammalian oogenesis in mice <i>in vitro</i> have been demonstrated	Still developing technique
PRP therapy	Improve the hormonal background and activate folliculogenesis in the ovaries	Need more knowlage in this area