

—Review—

Intracytoplasmic Sperm Injection (ICSI) in Cattle and Other Domestic Animals: Problems and Improvements in Practical Use

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Intracytoplasmic sperm injection (ICSI) is the microfertilization technique of the direct injection of a single spermatozoon or sperm head (nucleus) into ooplasm. In mammals, Uehara and Yanagimachi [1, 2] first reported that sperm nuclei injected into hamster oocytes could transform into male pronuclei. Since then, many investigations have aimed at successful production of offspring following ICSI. Normal live offspring resulting from ICSI have been born in rabbits [3], cattle [4], humans [5–7] and mice [8–10].

In human ICSI, high fertilization and pregnancy rates were achieved when a motile spermatozoon was injected after immobilization [6]. Dramatic advances in the treatment of severe male-factor infertility have been achieved by using ICSI, and at present, the technique of ICSI is being widely used in clinical applications for human infertility.

In cattle, the first ICSI calves were born in 1990 in Japan [4]. These results showed that bovine embryos produced by ICSI with a dead (killed) bull spermatozoon could develop into live calves. The normality of the calves (growth, behavior and reproduction) was also reported after five years [11]. However, the cleavage rate of oocytes after ICSI was very low (12 percent, 61/507) [4], the production rate of transferable embryos was low for practical use [4, 12–24]. In other domestic animals (pig, horse and sheep), the cleavage rate of ICSI oocytes was also low [20, 24–32].

There are many excellent reviews on the current status and future of ICSI in humans [33], mice [34] and domestic animals including cattle [35–40], and this pa-

per reviews the problems with and improvements to ICSI for practical use in domestic animals, especially in cattle.

History of ICSI in Cattle and Other Domestic Animals

In cattle and other domestic animals, the aims of ICSI are (1) the effective utilization of spermatozoa for livestock improvement and the multiplication of excellent animals; and (2) to provide another option to get fertilized oocytes, if in vitro fertilization (IVF) rates are low. Furthermore, there is the possibility of utilizing of defective spermatozoa from infertile animals, if the animals are excellent for productivity or possess a special ability.

Histories of ICSI in cattle, pig, horse and sheep are shown Tables 1 and 2. In comparison with human [6, 7, 33] and mouse [8–10] ICSI, fertilization rates, cleavage rates and the production number of offspring in bovine, porcine, equine and ovine ICSI are extremely low.

The first live calves following ICSI were reported by Goto *et al.* (1990) [4]. Their success was mainly dependent on the progress of in vitro maturation and in vitro fertilization of bovine oocytes and the establishment of an in vitro culture system by co-culture with cumulus cells [41]. Following the previous reports of Westusin *et al.* (1984) [12] and Younis *et al.* (1989) [14], Goto *et al.* (1990) [4] used capacitated bull spermatozoa killed by repeated freezing and thawing without cryoprotectants. In early reports on bovine ICSI, many researchers selected dead spermatozoa for practical use or for basic information on the fertilizability of sperm nuclei (Table 1). Their results showed that sperm nuclei transformed into male pronuclei, even if spermatozoa

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Table 1. ICSI in cattle

| Sperm | Fertilization | In vitro development | | Preg.or Offspring | Reference |
|----------------|---------------|----------------------|------------|----------------------|---|
| | | Cleavage | Blastocyst | | |
| Dead | 0~25% | 4% | - | - | Westhusin <i>et al.</i> (1984) [12] |
| Dead | 13% | - | - | - | Kameyama <i>et al.</i> (1985) [13] |
| (Freeze-dried) | | | | | |
| Dead | | | | | Younis <i>et al.</i> (1989) [14] |
| Dead | 15~76% | 4~38% | - | - | Keefer <i>et al.</i> (1990) [15] |
| Dead | - | 12% | 2% | Offspring | Goto <i>et al.</i> (1990) [4] |
| Dead | 22~39% | - | - | - | Heuwieser <i>et al.</i> (1992) [16] |
| Dead | 46% | 15~71% | 7~11% | - | Li <i>et al.</i> (1993) [17] |
| Live? | 67% | 67% | 9% | - | Pavasuthipaisit <i>et al.</i> (1994) [18] |
| Dead | - | 36% | 4% | - | Iwasaki <i>et al.</i> (1994) [19] |
| Live? | 25% | - | - | - | Catt <i>et al.</i> (1995) [20] |
| Dead | 5% | - | - | - | Qian <i>et al.</i> (1996) [21] |
| Live? | - | 38~55% | 0~33% | - | Chen <i>et al.</i> (1997) [22] |
| Live/Dead | - | 38~40% | 8% | - | Gordon <i>et al.</i> (1997) [23] |
| Live | 81% | - | - | - | Katayose <i>et al.</i> (1997) [46] |
| Dead | 50% | 11% | - | - | Hosoi <i>et al.</i> (1998) [24] |
| Live | 78% | 74% | 29% | - | Horiuchi <i>et al.</i> (1998) [42] |
| Live | 60% | 61% | 24% | Preg.38% | Rho <i>et al.</i> (1998) [59] |
| (DTT-treated) | | | | (6/16:~d54) | |
| Live | - | 72% | 28% | - | Horiuchi <i>et al.</i> (1999) [43] |

Table 2. ICSI in pig, horse and sheep

| Species | Sperm | Fertilization | In vitro development | | Preg.or Offspring | Reference |
|---------|-------|---------------|----------------------|---------------|----------------------|---------------------------------------|
| | | | Cleavage | Blastocyst | | |
| Pig | Dead | 60% | - | - | - | Catt <i>et al.</i> (1995) [20] |
| Pig | Dead | 66% | 10% | - | - | Hosoi <i>et al.</i> (1998) [24] |
| Horse | Live? | - | 39% | 21% (Morula) | No Preg. (0/2) | Meintjes <i>et al.</i> (1996) [25] |
| Horse | Live | - | 25% (1/4) | - | Preg. (1/1) | Squires <i>et al.</i> (1996) [26] |
| Horse | Live | 30% | 13% | 5% (16 cell) | - | Dell'Aquila <i>et al.</i> (1997) [27] |
| Horse | Live | 38% | 48% | - | - | Dell'Aquila <i>et al.</i> (1997) [28] |
| Horse | Live | 50% | 8-20% | 8% (6-8 cell) | - | Gondahl <i>et al.</i> (1997) [29] |
| Horse | Live | - | 5-21% | - | No Preg. (0/7) | Kato <i>et al.</i> (1997) [30] |
| Sheep | Live | 63% | 48% | 7% | - | Catt <i>et al.</i> (1995) [20] |
| Sheep | Live | 30% | - | - | - | Gomez <i>et al.</i> (1997) [31] |
| Sheep | Live | 34% | - | - | - | Gomez <i>et al.</i> (1998) [32] |

did not survive. However, the fertilization rates were various and the cleavage rates were very low.

Van Steirteghem *et al.* (1993) [6] reported a high fertilization rate in ICSI with human spermatozoa by the aspiration of ooplasm, the use of motile spermatozoa and immobilization by tail scoring prior to injection. Particularly, the injection of a motile spermatozoon after immobilization by tail scoring was the key to success. These excellent results were confirmed by many medical doctors and were accepted. Recently, also, in cattle, horse and sheep, motile spermatozoa have been used (See Tables 1 and 2), and we found that ICSI with a

motile bull spermatozoon immobilized by tail scoring could improve fertilization rate and cleavage rate in cattle too [42, 43].

Although step by step improvements have been tried, there has been limited success in pregnancy and birth of offspring in all domestic animals (Table 1).

Problems in and Improvements for Practical Use of ICSI in Cattle

Technical problems

There are many reports that the fertilization rates

following ICSI by the conventional method were low in cattle. The overall length of bull spermatozoa is approximately 68 to 74 microns, the head is about 8 to 10 microns, and the widest portion of the head is about 4 to 5 microns [44]. Of course, the size of the sperm head is dependent on each individual bull, however, the size (widest portion) of a bull sperm head is larger than that of a human sperm head. As a result, the pore size of the injection pipette in bovine ICSI is larger than that used for human ICSI. Therefore, breakage of oocyte plasma membrane (oolemma) by aspiration results in remarkable damage. Also, the oolemma of bovine oocytes is elastic like those of mice, and it was difficult to puncture them by conventional ICSI. Kimura and Yanagimachi (1995) [8] showed that the use of a piezo micromanipulator (PRIM Tech., Japan) was effective for ICSI in the mouse. Also, in human ICSI, Huang, *et al.* (1996) [45] reported that it was possible to achieve acceptable fertilization rates and pregnancy rates using a piezo micromanipulator. Therefore, another option for ICSI technique is the use of a piezo micromanipulator. Recently, Katayose *et al.* (1997) [46] showed that, in comparison with conventional ICSI, the rates of male pronuclear formation yield after ICSI using a piezo micromanipulator were significantly higher (81% vs 21%).

In addition to the difficulty of puncturing bovine oolemma, the observation and identification of a spermatozoon injected into cytoplasm of oocytes are extremely difficult, because bovine oocytes are opaque. Therefore, the details of the ICSI process cannot be observed. Bovine oocytes contain vacuoles and lipid droplets in their cytoplasm which prevent clear visualization. It is only possible to predict, therefore, the successful puncture of oolemma by their movement, which is probably insufficiently accurate. Centrifugation permits the removal of excess lipid for visualization of bovine oocytes [47]. The centrifugation of zygotes does not affect subsequent development and facilitates the visualization [48]. The confirmation of a spermatozoon injected into ooplasm must be effective for the increase of fertilization rate per injected oocytes. Although the effectiveness of centrifugation will have to be determined in future experiments, one potential problem is that some oocytes are activated by centrifugation and extrude the second polar body [47].

Polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) solution has been used for easy handling of spermatozoa in ICSI procedures. It not only prevents spermatozoa from adhering to the inner surface of glass injection pipette but it also allows good control of a spermatozoon in the injection pipette. It also facilitates immobilization of spermatozoa for the

decline of sperm motility within PVP solution. But, PVP has a primary detrimental action on the plasma membrane of human spermatozoa [49]. Bars *et al.* [50] reported that some commercially-produced PVP solutions are toxic, causing failed embryo development after ICSI in mouse zygotes. Also, the presence of PVP in human oocytes caused some delay between sperm injection and the beginning of calcium oscillations [51], or delay of sperm nucleus decondensation and oocyte activation [52]. Chromosomal abnormalities in pregnancies could be related to the injection of PVP into human oocytes [53]. Hinka *et al.* [54] found the 2PN rate after ICSI was significantly higher in a modified method of ICSI without the use of PVP than in conventional ICSI with the use of PVP. On the other hand, Motoishi *et al.* [55] reported that the injection of a small amount of PVP (about 2-3 μ l) was not detrimental to fertilization and embryo development of IVF bovine oocytes. Possibly, the injection volume is the important factor, however, the direct effect of PVP on early fertilization, oocyte cleavage and embryo development is still controversial in bovine ICSI.

Factors affecting decondensation and pronuclear formation of sperm nuclei after ICSI

The majority of bovine oocytes are prepared by in vitro maturation. The block of glutathione synthesis by L-buthionine- [S, R]-sulfoximine during in vitro maturation affects both pronuclear formation and apposition during IVF of bovine oocytes [56]. Glutathione is one of the important components for protamine disulfide bond reduction. After incorporation of the sperm head into the ooplasm, the sperm nuclear protamines are exchanged for the oocyte-derived DNA packing protein histones through nucleoplasm [57]. After that, the decondensation of the sperm head starts. These results indicate that the quality of oocytes, e.g. failure or incompleteness of in vitro maturation of bovine oocytes resulting in poor quality oocytes, affects the success of ICSI. However, the interaction between the quality of bovine oocytes and the success of ICSI is unclear.

Keefer *et al.* (1986) [58] reported that the protamine disulfide bonds in bull sperm nuclei may be richer than those in hamster sperm nuclei, as a result of the delay of bull sperm decondensation in hamster oocytes after microinjection. Recently, Rho *et al.* (1998) [59] reported that pretreatment of sperm with dithiothreitol (DTT) could improve significantly the proportion of male pronuclear formation in bovine ICSI.

It is widely known that the decondensation of the sperm head is independent of oocyte activation [57].

Therefore, the failure of sperm injection into ooplasm would probably be the first reason for unfertilized oocytes. A high rate in male pronuclear formation by piezo-ICSI was reported by Katayose *et al.* (1997) [46] and Horiuchi *et al.* (1998) [42].

In human ICSI, immobilization by scoring a sperm tail increased the incidence of normal fertilization [60–63]. Physical damage of the sperm membrane may facilitate the effects of ooplasm factors on the sperm head [64], however, it is not clear whether the immobilization of a motile spermatozoon accelerates the interaction between the sperm head and the ooplasm.

Oocyte activation following ICSI and necessity of artificial oocyte activation

In normal fertilization, the membrane fusion between sperm and oocyte is essential for the incorporation of sperm into the cytoplasm of oocytes. The incorporation of the sperm head into the ooplasm results in the release from meiotic arrest. The second metaphase transferred into the G1/S phase. There are two hypotheses as to how sperm triggers the oocyte activation [65]. One is the transmembrane receptor mechanism, the other is a soluble sperm factors mechanism [66, 67]. In ICSI, the soluble sperm factors are the only oocyte activation factors except the physical stimulation by injection procedure.

In laboratory small animals, e.g., hamster and mouse, a sham injection, that is, picking of oolemma or aspiration of ooplasm, stimulated oocytes activation and caused parthenogenetic cleavage [68]. On the other hand, bovine matured oocytes have rarely been activated by sham injection [42].

Aged bovine oocytes could easily be activated by treatment of ethanol [69], electric stimulation and calcium ionophore (A23187) [70]. Age dependence of activation has been shown in cattle, and aging of bovine oocytes affects the response of oocyte activation. Unlike the aged bovine oocyte, activation of younger bovine oocytes (e.g., matured *in vitro* for 22–24 hr) could not be induced by ethanol, electric stimulation or A 23187 alone [69, 70]. However, activation of younger bovine oocytes could be induced by a combination of their parthenogenic agent and an inhibitor of protein synthesis (cycloheximide) [71, 72] or phosphorylation (6-dimethylaminopurine, 6-DMAP) [73–75]. It is difficult to activate younger bovine oocytes with a single activation stimulation alone [71, 72], nevertheless the younger bovine oocytes just after ICSI have been induced with a single activation stimulation alone according to many reports [4, 14–17, 19–22]. The insufficient stimulation

or level of internal calcium leads from metaphase II to metaphase III in parthenogenetically activated mouse oocytes [76, 77]. Recently, Rho *et al.* (1998) [75] reported that delaying the addition of 6-DMAP for 3 h after ionomycin (used as the calcium ionophore) treatment greatly decreased the incidence of chromosomal abnormalities and produced a high proportion of activated oocytes with a single, haploid pronucleus. Furthermore, they showed that the efficiency of bovine ICSI could be improved by oocyte activation with this activation regimen [59].

Many investigators [4, 12, 14–16, 22] thought that induction of oocyte activation was essential for promoting male pronuclear formation in bovine ICSI. However, the improvement of the ICSI technique (from conventional ICSI to piezo-ICSI) has increased the rates of male pronuclear formation. In spite of live or dead spermatozoa, the second polar body was extruded after piezo-ICSI [46, 42], and with regard to the resumption of meiosis, bovine spermatozoa may possess the sperm associated oocyte activation factors (SOAF).

Factors affecting the cleavage of bovine oocytes after ICSI

In bovine ICSI, the main problem is a low cleavage rate. If you select the proper ICSI technique, the successful injection of bull spermatozoa allows sperm nuclei to decondense and transform into well-developed male pronuclei. Nonetheless, normal bipronuclear formation is not a guarantee of further first cleavage.

The effects of artificial oocyte activation on cleavage and *in vitro* development of bovine oocytes after ICSI are summarized in Fig. 1. When a motile bull spermatozoon immobilized by a tail-scoring was injected into bovine oocytes, the treatment of artificial oocyte activation (7% ethanol for 5 min) increased the development rate to more than two-cell stage in bovine oocytes with a second polar body after ICSI (74% vs 33%). Also, the blastocyst rate was increased by treatment with 7% ethanol for 5 min (29% vs 14%). Therefore, it is thought that the low cleavage rate of ICSI bovine oocytes without additional activation stimuli is caused by insufficient stimulation of oocyte activation for embryo development, not resumption of meiosis and extrusion of the second polar body. Stice and Robl (1990) [78] reported that the activity of a soluble factor from bull spermatozoa in oocyte activation was lower than that of rabbit spermatozoa.

Irrespective of the addition of oocyte activation, the injection of a motile (live) bull spermatozoon into the ooplasm after immobilization yields more cleaved embryos than the injection of a dead (killed by repeated

freezing and thawing) bull spermatozoon. The use of dead bull spermatozoa caused the remarkable decrease in cleavage rates in bovine ICSI [43]. There are many reports [4, 12, 15, 17, 24] on low cleavage rates in ICSI with dead bull spermatozoa.

High rates of embryo development by ICSI with dead spermatozoa or isolated sperm nuclei were reported in rodents, for example mice [8, 79] and hamsters (Yamauchi and Horiuchi, unpublished). Ohsako *et al.* [80] found genomic DNAs of spermatozoa are very resistant to freezing and thawing treatment compared with somatic cells (liver, kidney and testis) in golden hamster. In terms of cytoskeletal organization and dynamics during normal fertilization, the differences between rodents and other mammals are shown in Table 3. In cattle, a radical microtubule aster is formed in association with the incorporated sperm head [82]. These microtubules are necessary for pronuclear migration. The sperm aster splits to form two asters, which serve as

the poles for the first mitotic spindle. The sperm tail remains associated with one the poles. In cattle, the sperm centrosome after incorporation into the ooplasm has an important role in the migration of the male pronucleus, the apposition of bipronuclei and the first meiosis. On the other hand, in rodents, centrosomal inheritance appears to be primarily maternal. Cytoplasmic asters are found in unfertilized oocytes, and these asters are necessary for pronuclear migration.

Introducing a defective centriole or multiple centrioles into an oocyte may result in abnormal fertilization and embryonic development in human [83, 84]. Therefore, the abnormalities of the sperm centriole in dead bull spermatozoa killed by repeated frozen-thawing must be one of the reasons for the low rate of cleavage. However, the behavior of sperm asters of dead spermatozoa after ICSI is not clear.

Problems for Practical Use of ICSI in Pig, Horse and Sheep

There are a few reports on ICSI in pig [20, 24], horse [25–30] and sheep [20, 31, 32]. The same as ICSI in cattle, cleavage rates were low in these domestic animals. The ICSI technique has been applied in horse, because of low fertilization rates by in vitro fertilization [40]. In pig, the remarkable progress of in vitro maturation, in vitro fertilization and in vitro culture system have been reported [85, 86]. In the near future, the rapid progress of ICSI in pig can be expected. At the very least, the basic information of fertilization and oocyte activation etc., needs to be recorded for the success of ICSI in these animals.

Conclusion

At the present, there are several problems regarding the practical use of ICSI on cattle and other domestic animals. For resolution of these problems, a lot of studies have been performed. The use of piezo-ICSI has facilitated the puncturing of bovine oolemma and the

| (age of oocytes) | ICSI with bull spermatozoa immobilized by tail scoring | | |
|---|--|--------------|----|
| | n=174 | n=173 | |
| No. of oocytes injected (24 h) | n=174 | n=173 | |
| % oocytes with 2PB at 4 h after ICSI (28 h) | 58% n=101 | 63% n=109 | ns |
| Oocyte activation (28 h) | (+) | (-) | |
| % oocytes cleaved | 74% | 33% | s |
| % oocytes developed to blastocysts | 29% | 14% | s |

Fig. 1. Summary of the extrusion of 2 polar body (PB) and in vitro development of bovine oocytes after ICSI using a piezo micromanipulator [42]. ns=no significant (P>0.05), s=significant (P<0.05).

Table 3. Differences of cytoskeletal organization and dynamics during fertilization between domestic animals and other mammals

| | Cow | Pig | Sheep | Human | Mouse | Hamster |
|----------------------------|-----|-----|-------|-------|-------|---------|
| Cytoaster | No | No | No | No | Yes | Yes |
| Sperm aster | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | No |
| Sperm tail at mitotic pole | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | No |
| Centrioles at 1st mitosis | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | No | No |

Cited from Navara *et al.* (1995) [81].

injection of bull spermatozoa, and the injection of an immobilized spermatozoon by tail scoring has proved useful in cattle, as in humans. Additional activation stimuli are required for cleavage and embryo development in bovine ICSI, but not for male pronuclear formation. The ICSI technique for producing bovine blastocysts is being improved continuously. In future, the developmental competence of ICSI bovine embryos into offspring must be confirmed on a large scale. Furthermore, we need to clarify the reason why ICSI with dead bull spermatozoa lead to lower embryo development rates.

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